MASKEW MILLER'S SHORT HISTORY OF SOUTH AFRICA

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Maskew Miller's

Short History

OF

South Africa & its People.

FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

Compiled from the published volumes and still unpublished manuscripts of GEO. M. THEAL, Litt. D, LL.D., and arranged for use in Schools by THOMAS YOUNG, M.A. Oxon., B.A. London, Principal of the Sea Point Boys' High School.

T. MASKEW MILLER,

Educational Bookseller and Publisher.

CAPETOWN PRETORIA BULAWAYO

Of the various small histories of South Africa drawn from my volumes, this is the only one authorised by me.

Wynberg, 1909. GEO. M. THEAL.

In the Press

MASKEW MILLER'S

COURSE OF HISTORY

FOR

SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS.

Framed to meet the Requirements

OF THE

NEW HISTORY CURRICULA

Prescribed by the University Council

FOR THE

SENIOR CERTIFICATE & MATRICULATION EXAMINATIONS

(In two parts)

BY

J. EDGAR, M.A.

Professor of History South African College
Cape Town.

T. MASKEW MILLER

The National Publisher.

CAPETOWN & PRETORIA.

PREFACE.

This little book is an epitome of the history of Africa South of the Zambesi, since the discovery of the country by Europeans, and attempts to present in miniature the results of Dr. Theal's researches carried on without intermission for nearly half a century concerning the Bushmen, Hottentots and Bantu, as well as the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and Germans who settled in the country. As the results of all these researches have not yet been published, but have been largely utilised in the compilation of this manual, it will be found to contain information never before within reach of South African teachers. Whereas the other school histories in use, excepting that by the Hon. A. Wilmot, contain matter freely abstracted without his consent and even without acknowledgment from the earliest editions only of Dr. Theal's works, this is drawn from his latest, and any teacher who seeks for further details can obtain them by referring to one or other of the larger volumes now being rapidly issued from the press.

Sea Point,
December 1909.

T. Y.

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CHAPTER I.

SOUTH AFRICA AND ITS INHABITANTS.

Before its settlement by Europeans, South Africa was practically an unknown, and certainly an unexplored, land. An old Greek historian, who wrote nearly five centuries before the birth of Christ, gives an account of an expedition which was sent out by the king of Egypt about 600 **B. C.** The sailors are said to have started from the Red Sea, and to have returned to Egypt through the straits of Gibraltar. But no Egyptian historian mentions this voyage, and it certainly had no practical results either from a commercial or a scientific point of view. For thousands of years South Africa remained a land closed to the rest of the world.

The Bushmen. — There can be no doubt, however, that many centuries ago almost the whole of the continent of Africa was inhabited by a race of savages, now known as Bushmen. In course of time stronger races came into the country, and the Bushmen were either killed or compelled to flee before their foes. Thus at length all the land left to them consisted of a few inaccessible places of refuge in the interior of the continent and the region stretching southward

from the Zambesi and Kunene rivers to the shore of the Indian sea. At the present day the descendants of this once widely spread people are to be found only in small bands living in the secluded retreats to which they have been gradually driven by their enemies.

Looking then far back down the distant ages, we see our land occupied by a race of dwarfish savages. They neither built houses, nor kept cattle, nor tilled the ground. Of the use of iron or of other metals they knew nothing. Their implements and weapons were made of stone, horn, wood, or bone. They lived by hunting, killing the game which swarmed on the plains and mountains with poisoned arrows, or on bulbs and roots which they dug out of the ground with pointed sticks, hardened in fire and weighted with stones.

Their clothing consisted of the skins of the animals they slew. Yet these savages, though so low in the scale of civilisation, have left behind them drawings, paintings, and even engravings, on stone, which show them to have possessed considerable artistic ability. Here and there in the caves which were their abodes are still to be found pictures of men and animals, which tell us much of their mode of life. They knew nothing of God, but lived in constant fear of some evil power, from which they sought to protect themselves by means of charms and various strange practices.

The builders of Zimbabwe. — Many centuries passed by, and then at some unknown date came men of another race, who drove the Bushmen from a large extent of the country south of the Lower Zambesi, and took

up their abode in it, advancing nearly as far as the site now occupied by the town of Pretoria. They were a people vastly superior to the Bushmen. They possessed a knowledge of architecture, and erected enormous circular stone buildings, the ruins of which still exist, though the varying thickness of the walls, the unevenness of the circles, and the absence of an arch show them to have been inferior to modern white men as builders. They had also learned to mine for gold, and carried out irrigation on an extensive scale. But they apparently had no acquaintance with the pump, and were consequently compelled to abandon their mines when the water rose above a certain level. Who these people were and what was their native land still remains a mystery. It is, however, very probable that they came from Southern Arabia in ships, and brought many Indians with them. After working the mines for centuries, they disappeared as mysteriously as they came.

The Hottentots. — After the departure of this strange people the Bushmen returned to the haunts from which they had been expelled, and for many years more all Africa south of the Zambesi was occupied by its original savage inhabitants. At last another section of the human family appeared on the western coast. These new invaders were the people we now call Hottentots. There is little doubt that they came from the country at present known as Somaliland, and that they were of mixed blood, sprung probably from intermarriages of women of the Bushman race with men of the light coloured stock which inhabited Northern Africa.

Advancing from Somaliland to the region of the great lakes, they remained there for a considerable time, but were eventually driven south-westward towards the Atlantic with their herds of horned cattle and flocks of large-tailed sheep. Keeping close to the coast, because there they were most likely to find water and pasturage for their flocks and herds, they pushed on farther and farther towards the south. As they advanced, sections split off here and there from the main body, and remained behind to form separate tribes. Thus they continued their progress until they came to the southern extremity of the continent. Here they turned eastward, and made their way along the shore of the Indian ocean until they finally reached the border of what is now Natal. This immigration must have gone on for many generations, and it is quite uncertain at what time the Hottentots arrived on the South African coast, though it was probably not many centuries before the European occupation of the country.

They were a pastoral but not an agricultural people, and thus lived chiefly on milk and wild plants. Like the Bushmen, they clothed themselves with skins. They had learned the art of smelting metals, but only practised it for the sake of making assagai and arrow heads of iron, and rough ornaments of copper. They also made a rude clay pottery and carved wooden bowls. They dwelt in light framework huts made of wattles and covered with mats. With the Bushmen, who stole their cattle, they carried on unceasing warfare, killing all the men, but carrying off the young women for wives. Like the Bushmen they had no knowledge of a supreme God, but worshipped a mysterious being called Tsui-

goab or Heitsi-eibib, who wrestled like Jacob with a foe, in this case not from the realms of light, but from the abode of darkness. They, too, were great believers in the value of charms.

The Bantu. — The settlements of the Hottentots, as we have seen, were along the sea coast, and consequently the country as a whole was little influenced by their coming. But the next invaders take a much more important place in the history of South Africa. These were the people known as the Bantu. They are brown and black as distinguished from the yellow skinned Bushmen and Hottentots, and are of mixed blood. The bond of union between the various tribes of which they are composed is very slight, and consists chiefly in the fact that they speak practically one language, and resemble one another in worshipping the spirits of their ancestors. In these two features of similarity there may be certain differences of detail. For instance, one tribe may use different words from another, or hold different animals sacred, or put faith in different charms and fetishes, but they all agree in worshipping the spirits of their ancestors, especially of their dead chiefs, while their sentences are formed in the same way.

We may then conclude that all the tribes are not sprung from a common stock. The truth of this is proved not only by their recent history but by their traditions. The first Bantu came into North-Eastern Africa probably from the continent of Asia. At the time of their arrival there were different races in the land. Negroes were living in the north-west, the coast from the Nile to the Atlantic ocean was occupied by the light-coloured

people previously referred to, southwest of the Red sea were various Asiatic settlements, and the rest of the continent was the home of the savage Bushmen alone. The new race of invaders, speaking the parent language from which all the Bantu dialects are derived, and worshipping the spirits of the dead, conquered a section of the earlier inhabitants, married the women whom they captured, and forced them to adopt their language and religion. In course of time they split up into two or more bands, each of which would pursue a similar career of conquest, but in a different direction. Thus a number of various tribes would gradually be formed, still with a common language and a common religion, but differing considerably in appearance. From those who had inter-married with the light-coloured women of the northern coast would be born children less dark in complexion than those in whose veins ran the blood of negro mothers. Others again would show traces of Asiatic descent, while some would have the yellow skin of the Bushmen. Between these various tribes the same process of conquest and inter-marriage would go on. All the time there would be taking place a gradual expansion towards the south, as the increase in population forced them to search for fresh places in which to dwell.

From a Greek treatise written about 100 **A. D.** it is known that the Bantu had by that time advanced down the eastern coast a little farther than the island of Zanzibar. In the middle of the tenth century they had reached Sofala, farther than which they do not appear to have gone during the next two centuries. Of their movements from this time until the year 1500 there

are no written records, but it is certain that during this period tribes of Batonga crossed the Zambesi and made their way south as far as Delagoa Bay. It is also probable that about the same time Betshuana bands left Central Africa, and made a home in the country along the eastern border of the Kalahari desert. Possibly, too, there was a movement of certain small parties from the Congo basin to the south-eastern coast between Delagoa Bay and the Umzimvubu river.

With the exception, however, of the Makalanga, who had been long settled in what is now known as Mashonaland, there was not a great number of Bantu south of the Zambesi in the year 1500. The ancestors of the tribes now living in Zululand and Natal did not cross the Zambesi till after the middle of the sixteenth century, most of the Bakwena and Basuto and all the Bavenda were still in the far north, and the Ovaherero or Damaras were living somewhere in the basin of the Congo.

While the Bushmen, as we have seen, were purely hunters, and the Hottentots only kept sheep and cattle, the Bantu had acquired a knowledge of agriculture. They made gardens, and kept cattle, goats, and poultry. They smelted iron, and could make neat earthenware pots and ornaments of copper. They lived in round huts, which were strongly thatched. They were thus a far superior race, so far as civilisation is concerned, to the Bushmen and Hottentots, and superior also in size and strength.

From the middle of the tenth century trading settlements had been gradually formed by Arabs and Persians along the eastern coast as far down as Sofala, at

which place they obtained gold from the Makalanga, who procured it by washing the earth in which it was found.

South Africa, then, at the beginning of the sixteenth century contained the following peoples, distributed in the following manner. The greater portion of the country from the Kunene and the Zambesi to Cape Agulhas, and from the Atlantic to the Indian ocean, was occupied by Bushmen alone, one of the lowest races of mankind. Here and there along the coast from the mouth of the Kunene round by the Cape of Good Hope to the mouth of the Umtamvuna were small bands of Hottentots, living at some distance from each other. Along the east coast from the Zambesi to the Tugela or perhaps a little farther, and extending on the north some distance inland, and also on the eastern border of the Kalahari, were to be found Bantu. At the port of Sofala was a small settlement of Arabs and mixed-breeds. These were the most civilised people in South Africa. They had trading stations also at Sena and Beira, but they had only come to the country for the sake of obtaining gold and ivory, for which they gave in exchange Indian calico and beads. They did nothing to improve the condition of the people with whom they came in contact.

Travelling was difficult. There were no roads other than footpaths. Rivers had to be crossed by floats, swimming, or by fords when these were found, for bridges did not exist. No attempt was made to improve the land by means of irrigation. There was only one square dwelling house south of the Zambesi, and that was the residence and reception hall of the Arab ruler

at Sofala. Its walls were of wattles daubed with clay, and its roof was thatched with reeds. Such was the state of South Africa when the first Europeans entered it. From this time there are written records which tell us much about the history of the land.

CHAPTER II.

DISCOVERY OF SOUTH AFRICA.

Diogo Cam. — It is to the Portuguese that the credit of being the first Europeans to visit South Africa belongs. They desired to get possession of the extensive trade in silks, calicoes, and particularly spices, which were brought by Arab traders in ships from India to the Red sea and then transported overland to Egypt, where the Venetians obtained them and then distributed them over nearly all the countries of Europe. Wishing to discover another way to India, the Portuguese had for many years been sending vessels down the western coast of Africa. Each exploring party had succeeded in reaching a point beyond that which the one before it had attained, until in 1485 a ship under Diogo Cam came to a point some distance south of the Kunene river. There a marble cross was set up to mark the extent of the discovery, and on that account the point still bears the name of Cape Cross.

Bartholomeu Dias. — The next expedition to leave Portugal was led by Bartholomeu Dias. In 1486 or early in 1487 it reached the inlet now called by the English Angra Pequena, and by the Germans Luderitzbucht. There, too, a cross was set up. The name of the Bay of the Islets was given by Dias to the inlet.

Proceeding farther south, Dias and his men again landed at some point near the mouth of the Orange river, but where is not certain. After leaving this place, they were exposed to stormy weather for many days. Dias tried to get sight of land again by steering eastward, and without knowing it, rounded the southern point of the continent. After keeping this course for several days and finding no land, he turned northward. In a short time he once more got sight of the coast, which he found to be stretching eastward. He landed probably at the place now called Mossel Bay, where he saw some Hottentots with cattle. He tried to communicate with them, but they fled inland at his approach. Still sailing eastward he landed on a small island in Algoa Bay, where he set up another cross. Hence the islet is still called Sainte Croix (Holy Cross), the French form of the Portuguese Santa Cruz. A little farther on, at the mouth of a river, either the Kowie, or the Fish, or the Keiskama, his men prevented Dias from proceeding farther, and he was obliged to return to Portugal. On his way back he discovered the bold promontory which King John II named the Cape of Good Hope.

Dias had come back to Portugal with the news that at last the extent of Africa towards the south had been discovered. There was much, however, to be learned, before it could be said that an ocean road lay open to India round the south of Africa. The most famous writers on geography then read and believed in, Ptolemy and Edrisi, thought that the African continent curved round so as to enclose the Indian ocean. Even after the return of Dias this view was still held by many people. The next expedition, however, brought back

definite information of the exact shape and size of Africa, and finally cleared away all doubt.

Vasco da Gama. — This expedition consisted of four vessels, and was commanded by a man of note, Vasco da Gama. Leaving the Tagus in July 1497, it anchored in November in a curve of the South African coast, which Da Gama named St. Helena Bay, the name which it still bears.

Here some Hottentots were seen, but unhappily a quarrel arose, and some of Da Gama's men were wounded. The small fleet next touched at a point which Dias had previously visited, the present Mossel Bay. Here the Hottentots were found to be friendly, and some sheep were obtained from them in barter. One of the ships, which was no longer needed, was burnt at this place.

On Christmas 1497 Da Gama sailed along a charming coast, which he called Natal in memory of the day. On the 6th of January he cast anchor at the mouth of the river Limpopo. Here the Bantu inhabitants showed themselves very friendly and in exchange for linen cloth provided the fleet with poultry and millet.

In the Kilimane river where he next stopped, Da Gama found so many signs of intercourse with Arabs that he was encouraged to proceed farther. After touching at Mozambique and Mombasa, he came to Melinde. Here he succeeded in securing a pilot who conducted him to Calicut in India. This place he reached in May 1498, ten months after leaving Portugal. Thus the ocean highway from Europe to India had been explored from end to end, and the form and extent of

Africa were now known to the people of Europe.

In 1500 a large fleet was sent out from Portugal under the leadership of Pedro Alvares Cabral. In one of the ships was Bartholomeu Dias, who had been ordered by the king to build a fort and set up a trading station at Sofala. But the discoverer of the Cape of Good Hope was not fated to carry out this project. The fleet had discovered South America, and been three weeks at sea after leaving Brazil, when a terrible storm arose. Four ships went down, and in one of them was Bartholomeu Dias.

João da Nova. — In 1501 four ships left Portugal for India under command of João da Nova. While calling at Mossel Bay, then named the Watering Place of Saint Bras, Da Nova erected a small building with stone walls, in which divine worship should be held. It is worth nothing that this was the first structure set up for such a purpose in the whole of South Africa.

The way to the East was now open, and every year vessels sailed from Portugal round the Cape of Good Hope to India, and returned laden with rich cargoes of spices, calicoes, and other valuable goods. Mossel Bay was at first their usual port of call, but later on they stopped at Mozambique to take in fresh water and other supplies. Little by little the Portuguese made themselves masters of the Arab settlements, and finally secured entire control of the trade of the Indian ocean.

Antonio de Saldanha. — It was not until 1503 that Table Bay was entered. Its discoverer, Antonio de Saldanha, climbed to the top of Table Mountain,

and gave it the name which it still bears. The bay itself was called Saldanha Bay, and as such it was known for about a century, after which it received its present name. But the name of Saldanha still lives in a harbour to the north. In 1510 Table Bay was visited by a fleet returning from India. A quarrel arose between the sailors and the Hottentots, and in the fight which followed Francisco d'Almeida, first viceroy of Portuguese India, and sixty five men were killed.

CHAPTER III.

SETTLEMENTS OF THE PORTUGUESE IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Occupation of Sofala by Pedro d'Anaya. 1505. — So far no permanent settlements had been established by Europeans in South Africa. The projected erection of a fort and formation of a trading station at Sofala by Bartholomeu Dias had, as has been previously related, not been carried out. But the rumours that gold was to be obtained at Sofala seemed to justify further attempts in this direction. The king determined to secure whatever trade was possible, and on two occasions vessels called at Sofala to make enquiries. Though very little definite information was acquired, a fleet of six ships was sent from Lisbon in 1505 under the command of an officer named Pedro d'Anaya, who had received instructions to form a settlement at Sofala.

Leaving the two largest of his vessels at anchor outside, d'Anaya crossed the bar with the four others and entered the river, on the northern bank of which stood the two little villages called Sofala. They were mere groups of huts, with only one building of any importance, in which the Arab ruler resided. D'Anaya and his men had hoped to find gold, but it was quite evident from the appearance of the place that the amount of that metal exported was but scanty. The Arab ruler,

who was old and blind, recognising that the newcomers possessed superior weapons, and believing that they would soon be destroyed by fever, gave his consent to their establishing a trading station. Accordingly on the 21st of September 1505 d'Anaya commenced to erect a fort near the mouth of the river, and thus laid the foundation of the European supremacy in Africa south of the Zambesi. There was at the time strife between the Mohamedan mixed-breeds who were under the government of the Arab ruler. One party, seeing that it was a fort and not a trading station that was being set up, wished to make war on the white people, and the others consequently assisted the Portuguese. The garrison was attacked by fever, and many of them died, but the work of building went on until January 1506, when the hostile mixed-breeds, assisted by a strong force of Bantu warriors, made an attack on the fort. Disease had played such havoc in the ranks of the Portuguese that there were only thirty-five men able to bear arms, yet so great was the superiority of their weapons that with the help of the friendly mixed breeds, they were not only successful in repelling the assault, but also obtained possession of the villages and killed the Arab ruler. This decisive victory made the Portuguese undisputed masters of Sofala.

War was continually going on between the various sections of the Bantu people in the adjoining district, but as the white people refrained from interfering in these domestic quarrels, the fort was unmolested. The sole object of the Europeans was to obtain as much gold and ivory as possible in exchange for calico and beads, by which mode of trading they hoped to make

enormous profits. It does not seem that they had at that time any intention of planting colonies in South Africa.

They were, however, greatly disappointed at the small amount of gold brought to them. That metal was not found within many days' journey of the fort, and the Bantu who obtained it by washing the ground were unwilling to take the trouble of making such long journeys. The Mohamedans had shown more enterprise, as they had travelled inland and persuaded the Bantu to procure the gold for them, but even in this way they do not appear to have succeeded in obtaining a large amount. The Portuguese, who waited at Sofala for the gold to be brought, did not acquire enough to meet the expenses of the station, and even found the trade in ivory more profitable.

Formation of trading stations at Sena and Tete. — Yet they were still buoyed up by the hope that the supply of the precious metal would before long become more plentiful, and as the profits derived from their trade in other commodities were sufficient to cover the cost of keeping up the station, it was not abandoned. In 1531 a few men were detached to set up an advance post at Sena on the southern bank of the Zambesi, about one hundred and forty miles from the mouth of the river. They met with no opposition from the small band of Mohamedans already settled there, who were very much afraid of them, nor from the Bantu residents, when they understood that the white men had come to trade and not to build a fort.

At a little later date a similar settlement was estab-

lished at Tete, also on the southern bank of the Zambesi, more than three hundred miles from the sea. From this time onward a regular, if not very extensive traffic was carried on by means of boats up and down the river. The profits realised above the cost of keeping up the stations do not seem to have ever been more than a few thousand pounds a year, which went into the royal treasury, as the trade with Eastern Africa and India was then a government monopoly.

Trade opened with Delagoa Bay and Inhambane. — In 1544 a man named Lourenço Marques was sent in a small vessel to examine the south-eastern coast. While exploring Delagoa Bay he was struck by the number of elephants which he saw on its shores, and obtained from the Bantu living there some ivory in exchange for beads. In consequence a small trading vessel was sent every one or two years from Mozambique. This vessel would sometimes remain four or five months in the bay, sending her boats up the rivers to collect the ivory, but it was not until two centuries later that a permanent station was formed there. Inhambane also was made the centre of similar trading operations, though there, too, no permanent occupation took place, nor was there any interference with the Bantu tribes.

To the south of Delagoa Bay there seemed to be no openings for trade, as the country inland was occupied by Bushmen, from whom nothing of value could be obtained, and the Bantu settlements along the coast were too few and insignificant to attract notice. So the border of Delagoa Bay, or, as it was called by the Portu-

guese, the bay of Lourenço Marques, became what it is to this day, the southern limit of their sphere of influence in South Africa.

Wrecks of the Saint John and Saint Benedict. — At times ships returning from India were wrecked on the South African coast, and in some cases, as food was not to be obtained, all who had been on board died of starvation. On two occasions, however, a few survivors of the wreck succeeded in making their way to Delagoa Bay, where they awaited the arrival of the trading vessel, and they afterwards gave accounts of the country through which they had passed and of the people whom they had met. From their narratives we have been provided with much information regarding the Bantu.

One of the wrecked vessels was named the *Saint John*. She was driven ashore a little to the eastward of the Umzimvubu river in June 1552, and after undergoing terrible suffering twenty-two men and three women were rescued at Delagoa Bay. Hundreds had died on the journey. The other was the *Saint Benedict*, which was lost in April 1554 on the western side of the mouth of the Umtata river. Of three hundred and twenty-three who reached the shore, twenty-five only managed to struggle through to Delagoa Bay, all the others having perished or been abandoned on the way.

At this time there were only a few Bantu stragglers south of the Umzimvubu river, and the lower terraces of Natal were very sparsely inhabited. It was not until the neighbourhood of Delagoa Bay was reached that tribes bearing names now well known were to be found.

The Bantu farther to the south may have been offshoots from the Batonga of Delagoa Bay, or they may have been an advance guard of the great host of invaders from the far distant north, which a few years later swept over the land: it is impossible now to say which of these theories is the correct one.

CHAPTER IV.

EVENTS CONNECTED WITH THE PORTUGUESE OCCUPATION FROM 1560 TO 1600.

First missionaries to the Bantu. — In 1560 the first effort was made to convert the Bantu of South Africa to Christianity. The three missionaries, who came for that purpose, believed at first that they were meeting with great success. But in less than a year from the time of their arrival, the leader of the party was murdered by order of the paramount chief of the Makalanga, and in 1562 the others, owing to the hostility of the people, were obliged to abandon their work and leave the country, without having made a single real convert.

Campaigns of Francisco Barreto and Vasco Fernandes Homem. — The murder of the missionary gave a pretext to the king of Portugal to send an army, ostensibly to wreak vengeance. The real motive, however, was to acquire possession of the gold fields, for it was thought that if controlled and worked by Europeans, they would prove a boundless source of revenue. So in December 1571 a fleet of twenty-two vessels, carrying a large and splendidly equipped force, entered the Zambesi and proceeded up the river to Sena. It had for commander-in-chief a distinguished soldier, named Francisco Barreto.

After landing his troops and stores, Barreto commen-

ced as a base of operations to erect a strong stone fort, the material for which was drawn to the spot by oxen purchased from the Bantu, and trained to the yoke by Portuguese drivers, the first cattle thus used for the service of man in South Africa. But misfortunes fell thickly on the army, fever killed many of the men, and nearly all the horses died from the disease which proves fatal to so many even to-day. After spending seven months at Sena, Barreto marched up the bank of the Zambesi as far as its junction with the Mazoe, from which point he turned southward along the latter stream. The two most powerful chiefs in the country were at war with each other, and the Portuguese professed to have come there as friends and allies of the Makalanga and as enemies of the people of Mongasi.

On the twelfth day after leaving the Zambesi, the Portuguese encountered Mongasi's army, and being equipped with fire-arms and artillery, repulsed the enemy, and killed many of them. Later on the same day, however, the gallant warriors rallied their forces, and charged in a solid mass upon the invaders, but were once more driven off, leaving the field of battle covered with their dead. Two of the Portuguese were killed and sixty wounded, and Barreto had consequently to form a palisaded camp and construct a rough hospital. Six days later Mongasi's bands assaulted the camp at daybreak, and after many desperate attempts to force their way in, were again compelled to retire. This victory they accepted as decisive, and took a drove of horned cattle to the camp as a peace offering. As he had now more than two hundred sick and wounded in the camp, Barreto decided to return to Sena, where he

left the army, and proceeded himself to Mozambique to obtain supplies and reinforcements.

At Mozambique he succeeded in gathering a number of recruits, and also obtained a large quantity of ammunition and food. But when he returned to Sena, in May 1573, he found himself in a hopeless position. Nearly all the men he had left behind were dead, and most of the recruits he had brought with him were at once prostrated by fever. Eight days later he died himself, more from grief and anxiety than from sickness. The officer who succeeded to the command left a small garrison in the fort, and proceeded to Mozambique with all possible speed. Such was the disastrous result of the first military campaign undertaken by Europeans against Bantu in South Africa.

Not much greater success befell the next. Vasco Fernandes Homem, who succeeded Francisco Barreto as general, collected a strong force, and sailed from Mozambique to Sofala, where he landed. From that place he fought his way to a kraal somewhere near the present village of Umtali. When, however, he saw how gold was collected, he realised at once that the fields would be of little or no value to his country, and withdrew without delay. He then attempted a fruitless search for some rich silver mines, which were said to be situated on the bank of the Zambesi above Tete. At a place called Tshikova he left a force of two hundred men in a stockade to carry on the search, and with the remainder of his troops returned to Mozambique. Of the party left behind, small bodies which were sent out to look for silver and gold were cut off by the Bantu, who finally laid siege to the stockade. The defenders, when

all their provisions were exhausted, tried to cut their way out, and were killed to a man.

The Dominicans. — The next event of importance was the establishment of missions by the Dominicans in South Africa. In 1577 a monastery of that order was founded at Mozambique, and within the next few years missionaries went out thence and took up their abode at Sofala, Sena, and Tete. It is clear from their accounts of the prevailing conditions that there was quite as urgent need for their ministrations among the white men as among the Bantu. Churches were established in the stone forts, which had been erected at Sofala, Sena, and Tete. In the valley of the Mazoe there were three trading stations dependent upon Tete, and the missionary at that place visited them frequently, until in course of time each was provided with one for itself.

Coming of the Abambo and Mazimba. — About this time the country north of the Zambesi became the scene of a devastating movement. In 1570 there appeared before Tete two great hordes called the Abambo and the Mazimba. On their march from the north-west they had destroyed every living thing, and left the country behind them a wasted desert. The main body of the Mazimba, being unable to cross the river, proceeded eastward along the northern bank, and finally perished from war and famine. Two small bands succeeded in crossing to the southern bank, but fell victims to the Portuguese and Batonga. It is highly probable also that another section found its way across the Zambesi, and advanced as far as the Zululand of our day, where it settled. There is certainly strong

evidence of an immigration into the valley of the Umvolosi at this period, though it is possible that the ancestors of the tribes at present occupying that district made their entry at a later date.

A large party of the Abambo crossed the river at a point so remote from Tete that news of their movements never reached the white men. Cutting their way south-eastward through the tribes before them, and sparing none except the girls whom they adopted, they finally came to Natal, where they settled. This body must have been composed of the remnants of various tribes that had once been independent of each other, for it soon split up again into separate sections. Even to the present day some of these divisions, most notably the Amazizi, show traces of Makalanga blood.

Misfortunes of the Portuguese. In 1592 the Portuguese on the Zambesi entered into war with a band of the Mazimba that still remained on the northern bank of the river. The struggle was wholly disastrous, for the captains of Sena and Tete, the missionary at Tete, and one hundred and thirty other white men and mixed-breeds lost their lives, and the European power and influence on the great river was almost annihilated. In the following year an utterly unsuccessful attempt was made by the captain of Mozambique to retrieve the position, and he was glad to make peace on terms dictated by the chief of the Mazimba. In 1597, however, the Portuguese, with the help of cannon and other munitions of war imported from India, succeeded in re-occupying Sena and Tete, which were gradually restored to their former condition.

CHAPTER V.

HISTORY OF THE PORTUGUESE IN SOUTH AFRICA FROM 1600 TO 1800.

Mining Concessions. — At the beginning of the seventeenth century the power of the Portuguese in India was shattered by the Dutch, but their position in South-Eastern Africa was not thereby directly affected. Three separate but unsuccessful attempts were made by the Hollanders to seize Mozambique, for fever proved quite as formidable an obstacle to the assailants as the weapons opposed to them, and the Portuguese continued to retain possession of their trading stations.

In 1597 the Makalanga tribe was divided by civil war, and the Portuguese in return for assistance given by them to the paramount chief, a man of drunken and ferocious disposition, secured various concessions, among them the right to extract metals from any part of his territory. Thereafter for twenty-seven years unceasing efforts were made to discover the silver mines, which were believed to exist on the bank of the Zambesi above Tete, but without success, though lumps of ore, probably brought there from a distance, were repeatedly found.

Wars with the Makalanga, and Portuguese Supremacy. — In 1628 the paramount chief of the Makalanga, Kapranzine by name, son and successor of the

ruler who had been assisted by the white men, gave orders for a general massacre of the Portuguese in his country. Some of his intended victims, however, learning of the fate in store for them, took refuge in two of the trading stations, which were hurriedly put in a state of defence. An army sent by Kapranzine to destroy them was beaten off at the cost of some lives to the defenders, who were shortly afterwards relieved by a large force of Batonga raised by their countrymen at Sena and Tete. Then by the advice of the Dominican missionaries it was decided to depose Kapranzine, and to appoint in his stead a man named Manuza as head of the Makalanga tribe.

Several desperate battles took place, and on one occasion nearly all the Portuguese were killed and two of the missionaries who were captured were put to death by torture, but finally Kapranzine was totally defeated and driven into exile. His ally, the chief of Manika, was also overthrown and put to death, and another man was appointed in his place.

Manuza ruled merely as a vassal of the king of Portugal, and was compelled to grant to his masters whatever they chose to ask. Accordingly a great number of new trading stations were established, and missionaries were settled all over the country. The deposition of the line of hereditary chiefs led to the rapid breaking up of the two most important tribes in the country, and before long the Makalanga were divided into a large number of small independent communities continually engaged in war with each other. The same process of division also occurred among the Batonga along the Zambesi.

Commencement of Slave trade. — Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was incessant fighting going on between the different sections of the Bantu, and prisoners of war were usually sold as slaves. At first these were ordinarily bought for their own service by individual Portuguese, but in 1644 the slave-trade with Brazil commenced, and after that date many of the blacks were shipped thither by their purchasers, who found in this a most lucrative traffic.

The white men soon discovered that it was profitable to engage in the struggles which were going on among the Bantu. The chief who owed his victory to their aid generally showed his gratitude by making them grants of extensive tracts of country, taken as a rule from the defeated party. On each of these huge blocks of ground a Portuguese then settled, and became the ruler of such black people as he chose to keep upon it. At one time there were as many as eighty-five such little states, so independent that they were often at war among themselves. Confusion thus reigned everywhere, and the prosperity of the country was greatly retarded.

In addition to the destruction of life caused by this perpetual strife among the small bands that had taken the place of the larger tribes of former days, at times a horde would descend from the north, cross the Zambesi, and stream over the land, ruthlessly making away with every living thing in its course. Among such destroying swarms were the Bavenda, who ultimately settled in the Zoutpansbergen south of the Limpopo.

The commerce of Sofala, Sena, and Tete, with the out-stations or little trading posts dependent on them,

was never very extensive, and suffered greatly from the fact that the method of carrying it on was frequently changed. Sometimes it was a monopoly of the captain of Mozambique, who paid a certain sum of money to the royal treasury for the privilege, sometimes it was in the hands of the king's agents alone, once for a few years it was under the control of a chartered company, and for a short time it was open to every subject of Portugal upon payment of twenty per cent customs duties. The last named system drove nearly all of the few Europeans out of the country, because of their inability to compete with the Indian traders who made full use of the opening thus afforded. Sena and Tete were almost deserted, and the inland trading stations were rapidly being lost, when the ruinous system of so called free-trade was abandoned.

Dutch occupation of Delagoa Bay. 1721. — About the beginning of the eighteenth century pirates frequently resorted to Delagoa Bay, and the Portuguese in consequence ceased to send a vessel to trade for slaves and ivory. In 1721 the Dutch took possession of the bay, built a fort, and remained in occupation until the end of 1730, when they retired not only on account of the ravages of fever, but also because the trade obtained did not seem to warrant the maintenance of the post. During their occupation they had not been molested by any other Europeans than pirates, who on one occasion took and plundered the fort. In 1787, however, the Portuguese re-occupied the place, built a fort on the site of the present town of Lourenço Marques, and have ever since retained possession. In

the year 1730 they had erected a small fort and established a permanent trading station at Inhambane.

Departure of Missionaries. — In 1759 the Jesuit missionaries were compelled to leave the country, and in 1775 they were followed by the Dominicans. The stations occupied by them were entirely abandoned, and their sites even were soon forgotten. The Bantu converts, left without guidance or control, within a couple of generations relapsed to the spirit worship of their ancestors.

Decline of Portuguese power. — At the close of the eighteenth century the Portuguese power in Africa south of the Zambesi was little better than a shadow. Sofala, Sena, Tete, Inhambane, and Lourenço Marques were the only places where commerce was carried on, and the largest of these hardly deserved to be called a village. The great private estates had been laid waste by war, restored, and again laid waste so often, that very few now remained, and in the case of these few the position of the owners was very insecure. In the whole country there were only twelve hundred and seventy-seven professing Christians, including men, women, and children, civilians and soldiers, Europeans and mixed-breeds. The Bantu who remained lost all spirit and all memory of their former greatness. Yet with the exception of those who were slaves, they were in no way subject to Portuguese control, for the authority of the white men extended no farther than the range of the guns on the walls of their forts.

CHAPTER VI.

FOUNDATION OF CAPE COLONY.

Visits of English and Dutch ships. — In 1580 the Cape of Good Hope was passed by an English ship for the first time, when Sir Francis Drake was making his celebrated voyage round the world, and again by Thomas Cavendish in 1588. But no English vessels put into any South African port before 1591, when three bound to India entered Table Bay with their crews suffering severely from scurvy, and were fortunate enough to obtain a number of oxen and sheep from Hottentots in exchange for knives. Ten years later the first fleet sent out by the English East India Company came to anchor in Table Bay, when cattle and sheep were again obtained in barter from the Hottentots. From this time onward English ships bound to or from India very frequently called at Table Bay, where fresh water and fish could always be procured, and generally fresh meat as well. But no attempt to form a permanent settlement anywhere on the South African coast was made by Englishmen at this time, and only one place, Coney or Dassen Island received its present name from them.

Formation of the Netherlands East India Company. 1602. — The first Dutch ships that passed the Cape of Good Hope put into Mossel Bay on their outward

passage in 1595. After their return to Holland several small companies were formed to trade with India, and the ships sent out by them always touched on their passages at Table or at Mossel Bay. In 1602 all these companies were united in one strong body, termed the Netherlands Chartered East India Company, which had very extensive powers conferred upon it by the government. Holland and Portugal were then at war, and it was therefore necessary to send out strong armed squadrons, instead of the small fleets that ran the risk of being captured. In a very short time the Dutch took from the Portuguese the most valuable parts of India, and secured almost entire control of the very lucrative spice trade.

Establishment of a refreshment station at Table Bay. 1652. — No attempt was made by the Dutch East India Company during the first half century of its existence to form a settlement in South Africa. So severe however were the ravages of scurvy on the long sea passages, that the directors at length resolved to set up a place of refreshment on the shore of Table Bay, where fresh meat and vegetables could be obtained. It was also thought desirable to establish a hospital, where those suffering from sickness could be restored to health. Each fleet would thus be able to take on board healthy and strong sailors, and leave behind the weak and helpless.

It was known that the ground at the foot of Table Mountain was very fertile, and that the climate was well suited for growing all kinds of plants, for a few years previously the crew of a vessel which had been

wrecked on the Blauwberg beach had made a garden with complete success. Accordingly three vessels, furnished with everything that was considered necessary to the undertaking, were dispatched from Amsterdam, and in April 1652 arrived at Table Bay. The leader of the party was a little, active, quick-tempered man, named Jan van Riebeek. He was accompanied by his family, and so also were the chief gardener and the dominie, whose main duties were to read prayers and a sermon on Sundays and pay visits of consolation to the sick. His services as schoolmaster were not for the time in demand, as the children were still in their infancy. The dominie's name was Willem Wylant, and a son of his was the first Dutch child born in South Africa. With Van Riebeek's two grown-up nieces, there were five women in the party, while the men numbered about one hundred.

April is commonly a very pleasant month in Table Valley, because the great heat of summer is then over, and the earth is beginning to don a mantle of green. But in 1652 the usual early rains had not yet fallen, the ground was dry and bare, and the south-east wind often blew with great violence. The new settlers had brought timber with which to build houses, and were also provided with canvas tents, but they suffered greatly from want of fresh food, and many of them died. It was not until late in May that the rains set in. They were exposed to much discomfort at first, as the rain dripped through the houses and tents, but steps were taken to prevent this, and then all went well. Wild plants sprang up after the first showers, and by eating them the sick men got relief. Then a large garden

was made, and soon a plentiful supply of vegetables was obtained. The bay was full of fish, and so they had not to depend solely upon the stores brought from Holland.

For the sake of protection a plot of ground was enclosed with thick and high walls of earth. This was called Fort Good Hope, and within it several wooden buildings were erected. In the centre was a square stone tower with a flat roof, from which shots could be fired at enemies climbing over the surrounding banks. Between the fort and the shore a large hospital and workshops were built as soon as other pressing work was finished. When all this was done, the ordinary life of the little settlement began: the Commander issued orders, the clerks kept a record of all that happened, the soldiers mounted guard, the gardeners tilled the ground, and the dominie conducted public worship.

Dealings with the Hottentots. — At the time of Van Riebeek's arrival there were only about sixty men, women, and children living constantly in the peninsula. They were Hottentots who had lost their cattle, and lived upon shellfish, roots, and any wild animals they could kill. It is hardly possible to conceive of human beings more degraded than were these wretched beach-rangers, as they were called by the Dutch. Among them was a man who had been taken to India and brought back again in an English ship. As he could speak broken English, he was employed by Van Riebeek as an interpreter. To him the Europeans gave the name of Harry, while a little girl, who became a servant in the commander's house, was called Eva. The others also made themselves useful to some extent by carry-

ing water and collecting fuel, in return for which they were provided with food. Thus they were certainly gainers by the presence of the white people.

But there were other Hottentots, who had cattle, to obtain pasturage for which they roamed about from place to place, sometimes in the Cape peninsula, and sometimes as far away as the mountain now called Riebeek's Kasteel. To them the seizure of grazing ground by strangers was a loss, but at first the extent of land taken was so small that they hardly missed it, and they were also under the impression that the Europeans would not remain long. They had often seen white men come and go, and they thought that the same thing would take place now. Accordingly when the summer came they drove their flocks and herds into the Cape peninsula for change of pasture, and the commander was able to open a trade with them.

Brass wire, copper bars, beads, and tobacco they were willing to accept in exchange for oxen and sheep. The commander dealt with them himself, assisted only by Harry as interpreter and a clerk to keep the accounts. No one else was permitted to have any intercourse with them, for fear that a quarrel might arise or offence be given. After a few months they all went across to the other side of the isthmus, which then became first known as the Cape flats, and the white people were left in Table Valley with only the beachrangers.

Van Riebeek had by this time a large herd of oxen and several hundred sheep. The latter appeared strange to the Europeans, for they were of different colours, were covered with hair instead of wool, and had tails of great thickness.

CHAPTER VII.

EXTENSION OF THE COLONY TO WYNBERG.

Misfortunes of the settlers. — In the early days of the settlement lions, wild cats, and other ravenous animals caused much trouble. They swarmed in the mountains, and often came down into the valley and destroyed oxen, sheep, and poultry. It was long before they were exterminated, for the guns of that period were very ineffective weapons.

About eighteen months after the formation of the settlement, on a Sunday during the hours of public worship, the beachrangers murdered a boy who was tending the cattle, and ran away with all the herd but two. This was the first open act of hostility on the part of the Hottentots, and it created an unfriendly feeling towards them. Some time afterwards the robbers returned to Table Valley, but they were not punished for the crime, because orders had been received from Holland that the people living in the country were to be treated with kindness.

Besides these misfortunes the crops of wheat and barley, when almost ready for the sickle, were destroyed by the violent summer winds. Van Riebeek, however, noticed that even when a gale was blowing at the fort, there was nothing more than a pleasant breeze behind the high mountain on the south-eastern side of the valley.

He therefore caused a plot of ground to be ploughed at a place which he called Rondebosch, on account of a circular grove of trees close at hand. Some wheat, barley, and oats were sown there, and very good crops were reaped. Thus the settlement was beginning to expand.

Five years went quietly by, the only events of excitement being the arrival of outward and homeward bound fleets, and occasional visits from Hottentots, with whom a trade in cattle could be carried on. Oxen and sheep were needed not only for the ships' people, but also for the settlers, and it was therefore important to obtain as many as possible and for this reason to keep on the most friendly terms with the Hottentots.

Nearly every garden-plant of Europe and India was found to thrive. But cabbages, cauliflowers, onions, and lettuce were grown in larger quantities than any other kinds, because they were required for the men in the hospital who were afflicted with scurvy. Much attention was also paid to fruit trees and to the grape vine. There were also imported horses, pigs, wool-bearing sheep, dogs of a breed superior to those of the Hottentots, rabbits, and poultry.

First Colonists at Rondebosch. — In February 1657 nine men took their discharge from the Company's service, and were given plots of land along the Liesbeek river at Rondebosch, from which they afterwards earned their living as farmers. They were the first real South African colonists. In the course of a few months their example was followed by nearly forty others, so that, when the planting season arrived, the

banks of the Liesbeek presented a scene of busy industry.

Not many of the men who thus tried their fortune as farmers remained long in South Africa. Most of them found that they were unsuited for field labour, and went back to the service of the Company. But for many years this was the method employed for settling the land, and was found to answer very well, as only the best and steadiest men became colonists, while the idle and worthless were withdrawn as soon as it was seen that they were unfit to be farmers.

A rule was made, though not strictly enforced, that only married men should receive grants of land. For those who were married the Company conveyed their wives and children from Holland free of charge, and after 1657 hardly an outward bound fleet arrived without bringing some one to settle in the Cape peninsula.

Vineyard at Wynberg. — The land behind the mountain as far as Wynberg soon became dotted over with houses, and ground that had never been tilled since the creation of the world was made to bring forth food for the use of man. By means of hired labour Van Riebeek himself cultivated the farm that is now called Protea, where he planted a vineyard and various kinds of fruit trees. On account of the vineyard the place was called Wynberg, but that name was afterwards transferred to a spur of the mountain a little farther away from the fort Good Hope.

CHAPTER VIII.

EARLY ATTEMPTS AT EXPLORATION.

Inspection of the country near the Cape. — So far the land away from the coast had not been visited by the white men, but soon they were seized with a desire to explore the mysterious country that lay beyond the limits of the settlement. It was believed that not very far away from the fort, on the other side of a river which ran first southward and then eastward for many hundred miles from a point far away in the heart of the continent, there was a great, rich, and powerful empire, whose people were partly civilised. It was supposed that on the banks of the river there was a large town, which was named Vigiti Magna, and from the maps it seemed as if this town could easily be reached.

To find a way to it, exploring parties were sent out, one after another, until it was proved that neither the town, the river, nor the empire had any existence in fact. For a long time these exploring parties could not advance beyond the belt of land along the western coast, because of the range of mountains which bounds it on the eastern side, through which no passage was then known.

Expedition under Jan Wintervogel. — The first party that tried to make its way to the interior was under the

leadership of a man named Jan Wintervogel, and was absent from the fort for nearly three weeks. As there were no waggons in the country, food could not be taken for a long journey. Wintervogel went towards the north, and got about as far as the present town of Malmesbury. He came across some Bushmen, and visited several Hottentot kraals, but made no discovery of any importance.

The Berg river discovered and named. — In 1657 a party of white men crossed the Cape flats to the head of False Bay, where the mountain range commences, and named the place they visited Hottentots-Holland. In the same year another party explored the range farther to the north, and discovered a stream which they named the Berg river. As they had pack oxen to carry food, they could remain away some time, and were thus able to inspect a charming valley bounded on the west by a long hill with a great glistening dome of granite on its top, which they called the Paarl. The Berg river flows northward through the valley.

Discovery of the Tulbagh basin and the Elephant river. — In the following year another exploring party went much farther north, and at length came to a place where it seemed possible to pass the mountain range. Some of them were too weak to make the attempt, but others climbed to the top, and had a view of the country on the eastern side. It was the Tulbagh basin that lay beneath them, which is very beautiful with its wild flowers in the early spring. But it was then the middle of summer, and as far as the explorers could see the

land was parched and bare, without a sign of human life upon it.

Two years later the Elephant river was reached, so called because a very large herd of these animals was seen on its banks. The country beyond its lower course was explored for some distance, and was found to be a region of drought, parched by the sun in the sultry season. On this and several other occasions nothing else of note was discovered, but various mountains standing apart on the belt of land between the great range and the sea, such as Riebeek's Kasteel, Paardeberg, and Koeberg, received the names by which they are still known.

Breach of peace with the Hottentots. 1659. — Seven years after the arrival of the white people, the peace that had thus far been kept with the Hottentots was broken. Some wandering parties brought their cattle to graze in the Cape peninsula, as they had always been in the habit of doing, and they found large patches of land turned into gardens and cornfields, from which they were excluded. They then drove off the cattle belonging to the farmers, and murdered a burgher who was tending his cows.

The Europeans mustered under arms, but the Hottentots avoided meeting them in the open field, and only on two occasions were small parties found, of whom six or seven were killed, and a few more wounded. The Hottentots then moved far away, but after a while they sent messengers to ask that friendship might be renewed. The commander at once consented, and peace was made.

In these early days slaves were brought into the colony to do rough work. A few were from the Indian islands, but far the greater number were blacks from the coast of Guinea and Mozambique.

Van Riebeek remained ten years at the fort as commander. He then went to India, and other men, one after another, were sent to govern the little settlement.

CHAPTER IX.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1662 TO 1679.

Life in the settlement. — For a long time after Van Riebeek left South Africa, nothing of much note occurred. Hottentots brought cattle to the fort for sale, the farmers in the Cape peninsula tilled their ground, the great gardens in Table Valley and at Rondebosch were well attended to, and ships came and went, without anything to disturb the even tenor of life in the settlement.

Arrival of the first Clergyman and commencement of building the Castle 1665. — The dominie continued to read prayers and a sermon to the people every Sunday until 1665, when a clergyman arrived. After that date regular church services were held just as at present. A school was kept for the children, who were taught to read and write, to cast up accounts, to sing the psalms, and to repeat the catechism. In the same year in which the clergyman arrived the present castle was commenced, as a protection against a foreign enemy.

Further exploration. — A little later a way was found over the mountain range to the eastward. Some Hottentots from the other side reached the fort with cattle, to barter for brass wire, beads, and tobacco;

and the white people took good notice of the route that they followed. A trading party was sent in that direction shortly afterwards, and crossed the range at the place known in our times as Sir Lowry's pass. In the course of a few years the country along the southern coast was explored as far as the present town of George.

Purchase of land from Hottentots. 1672. — The land upon which the white people were living had been taken possession of without the consent of the Hottentots, but after it had been thus occupied for twenty years, a Dutch officer thought it would be more honest to purchase it. Agreements were therefore made with the heads of the tribes in the neighbourhood, who consented to sell the country between Saldanha Bay and False Bay to the Dutch government for trifling articles of merchandise. They knew nothing of the value of the ground, and in reality it was worth very little to them, as they had ample space to roam about elsewhere.

War with Gonnema. 1673—1677. — With the Hottentots near the fort the white people were on the best of terms, but there was a tribe living along the lower course of the Berg river, of which one of the captains was less friendly. This captain's name was Gonnema. He robbed some hunters of their waggon, oxen, and provisions; and as he was not punished for doing so, in 1673 he proceeded to greater lengths. In that year he not only robbed, but murdered a party of eight white men and a slave, who had gone to hunt large game near his kraals.

War was then made upon him. As the Hottentot

tribes were always at enmity with each other, those living near the fort Good Hope joined the Europeans against Gonnema. Most of his cattle were seized, but it was not possible to punish him severely in any other manner, because he could so easily conceal himself and his followers in the mountains. The only way in which he could inflict injury upon the white people was by cutting off the cattle barter in his direction, but that was a serious matter, as large quantities of beef and mutton were needed. After the country was kept four years in a state of strife, Gonnema sent to propose peace, and terms were made with him.

This was the last war with the Hottentots while the East India Company governed in South Africa. During the whole of that period the chiefs were left to do as they liked with their followers, who were not made subject to Dutch courts of law unless they disturbed white people. When they did that the government punished them. The Hottentot captains accepted this position without demur, and were usually ready to do whatever was desired of them.

Extension of the settlement to Hottentots-Holland. — A few months after the purchase of Hottentots-Holland the government caused a large plot of ground there to be ploughed and sowed with wheat. A range of farm buildings was put up, and a guard of soldiers was sent to protect the workmen. Thus the settlement was extended beyond the Cape peninsula.

The war with Gonnema made the East India Company fear that supplies of meat might again be cut off, and to prevent this it was resolved that white men

should attempt to breed cattle in sufficient numbers to supply the hospital and the ships. But very few offered to go beyond the Cape peninsula for that purpose, partly because of the lions and other wild animals, which were still very numerous, and partly because they would be almost cut off from the society of their fellows. But shortly after peace was made, five burghers settled as sheep-farmers on ground adjoining the government wheat-fields at Hottentots-Holland, and two others made a venture of the same kind at the Tigerberg.

CHAPTER X.

FURTHER EXTENSION OF THE COLONY.

Arrival of Simon van der Stel and foundation of Stellenbosch. 1679. — In 1679, twenty-seven years after the first Dutch settlers landed in South Africa, there came from Holland as commander a little man full of energy, named Simon van der Stel. He had not been in the country many weeks when he made a tour to Hottentots-Holland. While returning to the castle, he passed through a valley of great natural beauty, which seemed to him a very suitable place for farmers. As he was resting under a grove on the bank of a charming streamlet, an idea of a name for the valley occurred to him. He called it Stellenbosch, *Stel* after himself, an extra *l* to preserve the correct sound, *en* which means and, and *bosch* after the grove.

At the spot where he was resting he resolved to form a village, with a church and a school, which should be a central place of meeting for farmers around. The chief difficulty was to find people in sufficient numbers to occupy the valley. There was no lack of work in Holland for all its inhabitants, and few men or women cared to come to a country so far distant as South Africa. An offer by the East India Company of free passages and farms without payment had once been made to people there, who knew how to till the ground

and take care of cattle, and several families had accepted the terms and settled in the Cape peninsula. But during the last eight years hardly any immigrants had arrived, and the prospect that many more would come was very slender.

The commander therefore offered those living in the Cape peninsula larger and better farms if they would move to Stellenbosch. Some of them agreed to the exchange, and their places at Rondebosch and Wynberg were filled by men discharged from the East India Company's service. Thus the valley, that before had no other occupants than a few roaming Bushmen and Hottentots, became inhabited by white people. At the grove in its centre a school was opened for the children, and a church was built, in which services were conducted by the schoolmaster, except once every three months, when the clergyman from the castle paid the place a visit. In course of time the people increased, and then a resident clergyman was appointed. A court house was also built, and a landdrost was stationed there to see that the laws were obeyed. To assist him in his duties a few of the most respectable burghers were selected, who had the title of "heemraden" conferred upon them.

Discovery of the copper mines of Namaqualand. 1685. — One day some Hottentots arrived at the castle from a part of the country beyond the Elephant river, which white men had never reached. In their usual manner of travelling, they were riding on oxen with pieces of wood through the nose for bridle bits, and sheepskins for saddles. The commander had seen many arrive in

the same way before. But these strangers caused unusual interest, because they brought with them some specimens of copper, which they said was very abundant in the land from which they came, and because they talked of a great river and of people living beyond it, whom they called Briquas, that is men who keep goats.

Simon van der Stel was so much interested in the specimens of copper and in what these strangers told him, that he made up his mind to visit their country himself. They called the tribe of which they were members the Namaqua, on which account their country was named by the white people Namaqualand. In the year 1685 the commander set out on the journey. He took with him a large escort, a train of waggons to carry provisions, a boat to cross rivers, and even two small cannons, to impress the Hottentots with respect for the power of Europeans.

Heavy rains had fallen in the north, and the belt of land along the coast was in its best condition. The travellers therefore went forward with ease until they reached the copper mountains. The metal was found in great abundance and of good quality, but it was in such a position that with the means of transport available in those days it would have cost more than it was worth to convey it to the coast.

The commander was not able to go any farther, because the hot weather was setting in, the water was drying up, and the grass was perishing. Thus he did not see the great river that is now called the Orange, but he learned a good deal about it from Hottentots who lived on its banks. On the way back he thoroughly

explored the coast, and thus that part of South Africa became as well known as it is to-day. After an absence of five months, the travelling party reached the castle again in safety, and the commander resumed his usual duties.

CHAPTER XI.

ARRIVAL OF HUGUENOT AND OTHER IMMIGRANTS. EXPLORATION OF THE COUNTRY EASTWARD.

Arrival of some young women from orphan asylums in Holland. 1685. — It has already been stated that it was not an easy matter to persuade people to come to South Africa as settlers. The directors of the East India Company thought that if they were to send out respectable and industrious young women from the orphan asylums in Holland, the single men who were farming at Stellenbosch and Wynberg would marry and remain in the country, instead of returning to Europe, as many had done before. This plan was tried with a certain amount of success, but the number of young women willing to come out was not great. The first of them arrived in the same year as that in which the copper mines were discovered.

Arrival of the first Huguenots. 1688. — A little later there was a large influx of people from France into Holland. The French government was treating its Protestant subjects with such extreme cruelty that they were trying to escape to some more kindly land, and were glad if they could do so with only their lives, leaving all their property behind. The French Protestants

were called Huguenots, a corruption of the word Eedgenoot, which means Oath-associate, or Covenanter, as it was used in Scotland.

The Huguenots sought refuge in Holland in such numbers that in some places there seemed to be too many people, and the East India Company was able to obtain more families as colonists than ever before. Still the Dutch men and women who offered to come to South Africa were fewer than the directors needed, and they therefore thought of sending out some of the French refugees. About one hundred and eighty of both sexes and all ages accepted the proposals made to them, and arrived in this country to form part of its permanent population. It will be remembered that the first Dutch settlers landed in April 1652. The first Huguenot settlers landed in April 1688, when white people had been living in the Cape Colony thirty-six years.

Occupation of the Drakenstein Valley. 1687. — A few months before their arrival some farms were given out along the Berg river, opposite the Paarl mountain. The beautiful valley in which they were situated was named Drakenstein, from an estate in Holland belonging to a man of high rank who had recently visited the colony and held supreme power during his stay. Some of the Huguenots had land given to them at Stellenbosch, but the greater number went to reside at Drakenstein and in the adjoining valley, which was named from them French Hoek. At all these places they mixed with Dutch farmers, though at first they would have preferred to live by themselves. They were nearly one-sixth of the whole number of colonists, or one-eighth

of the white people in the settlement, including the East India Company's servants.

A clergyman came out with the Huguenots. For three years he conducted services in the French language in the church at Stellenbosch, and then a separate congregation was formed at Drakenstein. He remained fourteen years in the colony, and during the whole of that time used French in public worship. The clergyman who succeeded him preached in Dutch, because that was the language then spoken by all the people except a few of the elderly Huguenots.

In the course of a couple of generations the settlers from Holland and those from France were thoroughly blended together. They were of the same religion, and they made their living in the same manner, by breeding cattle, growing wheat, and making wine. Thus there was nothing to prevent their perfect union as soon as the French children learned to speak Dutch.

Exploration of the country far to the eastward. 1689. — At this time the land along the east coast from St. Lucia Bay to the Buffalo river was explored by some shipwrecked sailors, who gave almost as good a description of the Bantu tribes living there as any we have at the present day. Some of them built a small vessel at Port Natal, and sailed in her to Table Bay, others wandered through the country until they were rescued at the mouth of the Buffalo.

An exploring party sent from the Cape travelled much farther eastward than any before, and gathered information concerning all the Hottentot tribes in that direction.

Retirement of Simon van der Stel. 1699. — Simon van der Stel remained twenty years at the head of the Cape Colony. He was very fond of trees, and by his orders oaks were planted all over the part of the country in which white people lived. Simon's Bay was named from him, and also Simonsberg between Stellenbosch and Drakenstein. When he retired from the government he did not leave South Africa, but went to live at a farm a little beyond Wynberg, which had been given to him by the East India Company, and which he called Constantia. Here he continued planting trees, breeding cattle, and making experiments with vines until his death in 1712.

CHAPTER XII.

THE COLONY AT THE CLOSE OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Extent of the Colony. — We have now come to the close of the seventeenth century, when Europeans had been living in the Cape Colony forty-eight years. Yet from a small height on the shore of Table Bay any one could look beyond the land which they occupied. No part of it was more than forty-five miles in a straight line from the castle of Good Hope, for no house was yet built beyond the range of mountains that closes the view from Capetown.

Formation of the Country. — On all sides South Africa rises from the sea like a flight of stairs, and each succeeding step appears to be a range of mountains when it is seen from the one below. The land is not as smooth and regular as stairs in houses, but that is its general form, as it would be seen if a rent were made anywhere from the sea to the interior. The white people had not yet got farther than the lowest step along the western coast.

Organisation of the Colony. — In Table Valley there was a village of about eighty houses, which it

was usual to speak of as the Cape, until some years later when it became known as Capetown. There were courts of justice for the trial of great and petty offences, and a board to look after the interests of orphans. Burghers had seats in all of these. The church had its elders and deacons, half of whom were burghers, and half servants of the East India Company. All the men except those who were very old assembled frequently to drill and to practise the use of their weapons, so that they might help to defend the colony if an enemy should come to attack it.

The roughest work was performed by negro slaves. Much of the lighter labour that needed some amount of skill fell to natives of the Indian islands and other parts of Asia, who were convicted of crime in the courts of justice there, and sent to South Africa for punishment. They were termed Malays. Some were sent here to serve for a certain number of years, after which they became free, and some were slaves for life.

There were also a few Javanese and other Indians, who came to this country as servants to persons of rank banished but not sentenced to slavery. And many free negroes were to be seen, for it was the custom to liberate faithful slaves upon the death of their masters, and the laws made it easy for others to release themselves from bondage.

The head of the settlement was termed the commander until the year 1691; after that date he had the higher title of governor. The laws were those of Holland and of the Dutch possessions in India, but local regulations were made by a council of eight members, all appointed by the directors of the East India Company.

Relations between Europeans and Hottentots. — Between the Hottentots and the Europeans the condition of peace was undisturbed. A good many of the most enterprising members of the tribes nearest the Cape, who objected to the loss of the land they had once roamed over without restraint, had abandoned that part of the country, and were moving through the Bushman territory north-eastward towards the Orange river, where they afterwards became known as Koranas. Many of those who remained behind had learned to speak Dutch, and they were in the habit of placing their little daughters in service with white people, so that this knowledge was rapidly increasing. Sometimes the men would engage themselves as cattle-herds, and in harvest time they were much in request as reapers, but they were not willing to remain long at any kind of labour.

The position of the Bushmen. — It was very different with the Bushmen. The hand of these wild people was against every man, and every man's hand was against them. The Hottentots in the south and west and the Bantu in the north and east were constantly trying to destroy them. They got into disfavour with the Europeans by attempting to rob travellers, by robbing and murdering shipwrecked sailors, and by stealing cattle from the farmers. Then war was made upon them, and was continued at intervals during the whole of the eighteenth and the first quarter of the nineteenth century. It ceased only when there were so few Bushmen left that they could do very little harm. They would not change their habits, and with those habits they and white men could not live on the same soil.

CHAPTER XIII.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1700 TO 1713.

Willem Adriaan van der Stel becomes governor. 1699. — In the first year of the eighteenth century the second step from the sea level began to be occupied by white people. Willem Adriaan van der Stel, the eldest son of Simon van der Stel, was then governor. While making a tour through the country, he crossed the mountain range and found himself in a charming valley, which he named the land of Waveren, but which is now called the Tulbagh basin.

To the north was the loftiest peak that can be seen from Capetown, the one that is called the Winterhoek mountain, which is often covered with snow in the cold season. To the east was a range which the governor named the Witsenberg, in honour of Nicolaas Witsen, a renowned burgher of Amsterdam. The western range, where he crossed it, was called the Obiqua mountains, because it was a favourite haunt of Bushmen, and *obiqua* — which means robbers — was a term commonly applied by Hottentots to the Bushmen. Farther down, the same range is called the Drakenstein mountains, and close to the sea it has the name of Hottentots-Holland.

There is a rent in this range, through which the Little Berg river flows down from the Tulbagh basin. In

recent years a good carriage road and a railroad have been made through it, but in olden times it was so blocked up with rocks and trees that it could not be passed through. People were obliged to cross the mountain a little farther to the north, where traces of the path which they took are still to be seen.

Settlement of white people in the Tulbagh basin. 1700. — Governor Willem Adriaan van der Stel thought the valley would be an excellent place for cattle rearing, and as a few Dutch and French families were arriving from Europe every year, he gave them land there for that purpose. It was of no use for them to raise anything from the ground that they could not consume themselves, because there were no means of getting it to a market; and thus it became a custom with many people to depend almost entirely upon cattle for subsistence.

Shortly after the Tulbagh basin was first occupied by white men, others began to make their way over the Hottentots-Holland mountains at the place now called Sir Lowry's pass, and to settle as cattle breeders along the banks of the Zonderend river. This stream was so named — without end — because the first travellers had to cross it again and again as it wound through the valley along which they were proceeding. But it is not really of great length, and is only a branch of the Breede.

First quarrel between Dutch people and Bantu. — In the year 1702 the first quarrel between white people in the Cape Colony and Bantu took place. A band of

marauders, consisting of an equal number of Hottentots and white men of the vagrant class, travelled eastward nearly to the Fish river. There they met a band of Xosas who had fled from their own country beyond the Kei, and who attacked them at daybreak one morning. The Xosas were beaten off, and several were killed.

Dismissal of W. A. van der Stel. 1707. — Governor Willem Adriaan van der Stel was intent upon making money for himself, and was inattentive to the welfare of the colonists. He had a large farm at Hottentots-Holland, where he spent a great deal of time, and in consequence he neglected his public duties. Some of the burghers sent complaints concerning him to the East India Company, and when he came to learn this it excited him to fury. He caused several of the best men in the country to be cast into prison, banished others, and committed various lawless acts.

But the colonists, men and women alike, defended their rights with great firmness, and in 1707 the governor and some other officials who were guilty of misconduct were recalled by the directors and after trial were dismissed from the service.

For several years after this event nothing of much importance occurred. Now and then a family arrived from Europe, and as the children of the colonists grew up they spread themselves farther and farther from the Cape peninsula. In good seasons there was more grain and wine and meat than was needed for the people in the country and the ships that called, and then what was not required here was sent to Java

for the use of the East India Company's servants there. But it happened sometimes in bad seasons that rice had to be brought from India, or there would not have been sufficient food for the burghers and soldiers in Capetown.

Great loss of life by small pox. — In 1713 the small pox, a very dreadful disease, was brought to the colony by the people of a ship from India. No means of preventing it were then known, for vaccination had not yet been tried. It caused great loss of life among the white people and the slaves, and among the Hottentots its ravages were terrible. In some kraals every man, woman, and child died, and when the plague ceased only feeble and dejected remnants of the tribes were left.

Vast tracts of land almost without other inhabitants than Bushmen now lay open to anyone who chose to occupy them, and whenever the sons of a cattle breeder grew up and wanted farms for themselves they had only to select places that suited them.

Chapter XIV.

Events in the Colony from 1713 to 1750.

Shipwrecks in Table Bay. 1722 and 1737. — One governor followed another, and the only change that could be seen as they came and went away or died, was that the colony was always growing larger. At long intervals something would happen to cause a stir, and then all would settle quietly down again. Thus on several occasions many ships were wrecked during winter storms in Table Bay, and the shore was strewn with corpses and goods of value. Once a party of elephant hunters travelled from the Cape eastward to the country occupied by the Pondo tribe, and on their return were attacked at the kraal of a Xosa chief, when several of them were killed. Events such as these were long talked about, because there was so little else to occupy the minds of the people.

Simon's Bay first used as a winter port. — The heavy losses in Table Bay led to the use of Simon's Bay after 1742 from the middle of May to the middle of August, that is the season when gales from the north and west are common. Simon's Bay is perfectly sheltered from these winds, but in the olden times, before roads were made, it was very difficult to get to it from the grain and wine farms. Owing to the fact that the East

India Company's ships touched there in the winter, a village sprang up on the southern shore, which was named Simonstown.

Churches established at Tulbagh, 1743, and at Malmesbury, 1745. — Before this date there were only three churches in the colony, namely at Capetown, Stellenbosch, and Drakenstein. But as the people in the Tulbagh basin and along the valley of the Breede river were now so numerous as to be able to form a congregation of themselves, in 1743 a clergyman and a schoolmaster were stationed with them. The place where the church was built is now the village of Tulbagh, but for a very long time it was known as Roodezand.

Two years later another church was built and a clergyman and a schoolmaster were stationed at the place which is now the village of Malmesbury. This is the part of the country where most wheat is grown, and there were so many people in the neighbourhood that a church was much needed. For many years it had no other name than Zwartland's Kerk.

Even after these two churches were built, there were people who could only attend the public services three or four times a year, because they lived so far away. But they were careful to have prayers, to sing psalms, and to read the Bible every morning and evening in their own houses; and many of them were in the habit of meeting together for worship on Sundays. The clergymen made frequent tours among them. The children were taught to read and to repeat the catechism by persons employed for that purpose, who remained with each family a few months.

The governor at this time was a colonist by birth, named Hendrik Swellengrebel.

Appointment of a landdrost to the district of Swellendam. — In 1745 a landdrost was appointed to maintain order among the people living farthest from Capetown, and the part of the country over which he was to preside was named the district of Swellendam, in honour of the governor. In the following year the village of Swellendam was founded. The landdrost held a court there, and the farmers went to him to pay their taxes. There were also heemraden, just as at Stellenbosch, who sat with the landdrost when important cases were being tried, and who acted as district councillors.

In those times people sometimes wrote a word with an *s* and sometimes with a *z*, just as it pleased them, for the spelling was not then fixed as it is now. Thus Swellendam was often written Zwellendam. It is spelt in that way on the seal of the drostdy, as the office of the landdrost was called.

Extent of the colony in the middle of the eighteenth century. — In the middle of the eighteenth century the colony extended on the north to the mouth of the Elephant river, and on the east a few miles beyond Mossel Bay. The parts most distant from Capetown were very thinly settled, and north of the Langebergen there were no permanent residents. When the pasture was good there, however, the people who lived near the coast were in the habit of driving their horned cattle and sheep up for change of food, and often remained for two or three months at a time, living in their great tent waggons.

Some of the Hottentots who were left when the small pox ceased had reserves assigned to them, some wandered about wherever the ground was not occupied, and some took service with the farmers, chiefly as cattle herds.

Bushmen had quite disappeared from the parts most thickly settled, but on the frontier they were still numerous.

CHAPTER XV.

THE TIMES OF FATHER TULBAGH.

Ryk Tulbagh becomes governor. — In 1751 Hendrik Swellengrebel was succeeded as governor by his brother-in-law, Ryk Tulbagh by name, who was at the head of the colony for the long period of twenty years. He was a man of very high moral character, and acted so justly and yet so kindly that the people were strongly attached to him and usually spoke of him as Father Tulbagh. He had lived in South Africa ever since he was a boy, rising gradually from a lower to a higher position in the service of the East India Company.

Exploration eastward to the Kei, 1752, and of Great Namaqualand. 1761. — Shortly after he became governor a well-equipped exploring party was sent eastward to examine the country carefully, and to report upon its inhabitants. The travellers found that the Xosas had got as far to the west as the Keiskama river, which was then the dividing line between the Bantu and Hottentot races. Along the mountains in which the Tyumie, Kat, and Koonap rivers rise there were no other people than Bushmen.

Another exploring expedition was sent northward, and reached a point nearly two hundred miles beyond the river now called the Orange. The route followed was not very far from the coast, and the country visited was little better than a desert. Copper was found close to

the southern bank of the great river, but it was supposed that it would not pay to remove it. Some giraffes were seen, and one was killed, the hide of which was sent to a museum in Holland, where it was regarded as a curiosity. This animal never roamed south of the Orange river, and was therefore unknown to the colonists.

Outbreaks of small pox. 1755 and 1765. — While Ryk Tulbagh was governor, the small-pox appeared twice in South Africa. On the first occasion the Hottentots were the greatest sufferers, though it caused fearful loss of life among all classes of people. It spread as far eastward as the Bashee river, and if legends of the Tembu tribe can be relied upon, it left a large portion of their territory almost without inhabitants. It certainly had that effect on the Hottentot tribes between the colonial frontier and the Keiskama. On the latter occasion its ravages were much less severe.

Rapid expansion of the colony. — During these twenty years the colony expanded very rapidly. Many families had become accustomed to living in waggons, and to them it was no hardship to go farther and farther away. The men were fond of hunting, and when the large game was shot down or driven from any locality, they moved to another. Or some one out of a mere whim would seek a new dwelling place, and after a time his friends would follow him.

They crossed the Karoo, but no one cared to stay on that arid plain, though in winter they went down from the higher lands and let their cattle graze upon the plants which then covered it. Along the lofty ridge,

where the water on the north runs towards the Orange river and on the south towards the Indian ocean, they found places that suited them. So too the territory between the upper courses of the Sunday and Fish rivers was looked upon with favour, and many settled there.

The Bushmen in the mountains murdered several of the strangers, who were destroying the game, and tried to drive them all back, but could not succeed, though the struggle was long and bitter. The Europeans increased in number every year, for the life they were leading, though rough and wild, was healthy and free, and attracted many young men from the corn farms of Zwartland and the vineyards of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein. Not a few servants of the East India Company also took their discharge, and sought to get a living by breeding cattle on the distant frontier, wherever that was at the time.

Distress among farmers. — The wine farmers were often unable to sell the whole of their produce, and there were seasons when they were in real distress. The East India Company only required a certain quantity, and they depended upon disposing of the remainder to the captains of English and French ships that put into Table Bay. When it happened that very few ships called, or that wine was not in demand, the growers and the dealers could not pay their expenses. This was the chief reason why many young men preferred to begin life for themselves as cattle breeders.

The same thing applied to the corn farmers, but in a less degree. Wheat could always be sold, though the price barely covered the cost of production.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE COLONY DURING THE GOVERNMENT OF JOACHIM VAN PLETTENBERG.

For nearly fourteen years after the death of Father Tulbagh the colony was governed by Joachim van Plettenberg, who was not liked at all by the people, for he allowed the officials to oppress them in many ways.

The Fish river becomes the boundary of the colony. — In 1778 he made a tour through the country as far as the site of the present village of Somerset East. Here he sent an invitation to the nearest Xosa chiefs, who were living along the Kat and Tyumie rivers, to come and meet him. Several of them complied with his request, and at a conference it was agreed that the Fish river down to the sea should be the dividing line between the white people and the Bantu. Two years later this agreement was ratified by the council in Capetown, and for a long time afterwards the Fish river remained the eastern boundary of the colony.

The Orange river receives its name. — During his tour the governor set up a beacon on the Zeekoe river, near the present village of Colesberg, to mark

the limit of the colony in that direction. While returning to Capetown, he inspected a bay on the southern coast, to which he gave his own name, and where he caused another beacon to be erected. At this time the Orange river received its present name from Captain Gordon, an officer in the service of the East India Company, who visited it near its mouth and also high up in its course. He named it in honour of the prince of Orange, who was the stadtholder of Holland.

First war with Kaffirs. — Only a few months after the agreement between Governor Van Plettenberg and the Xosa chiefs, some of those chiefs with their people crossed the Fish river and spread over the country on the colonial side. As they refused to return when asked to do so, parties of farmers tried to drive them back, but did not at first succeed. At length, after they had kept the border in a disturbed state for nearly two years, a burgher commando fell upon them with such vigour that they were compelled to return to their own side of the river. This occurrence deserves to be well remembered, for it was the first of a long series of Kaffir wars.

An English fleet is sent to seize the Cape Colony. 1781. — Before it was brought to a close, tidings came to the Cape that England and Holland were at war. The position of Holland was then very far from being as good as it was when the colony was founded, for she had been getting weaker all the time, while England had been growing stronger. Moreover, as the English power was supreme in Hindostan, Capetown being the

halfway house between Europe and that country was a place much coveted.

A great fleet with soldiers on board was sent from England to wrest the colony from the Dutch, but the government of Holland came to learn about it before it sailed, and asked aid from the French, who were also at war with Great Britain. The French government at once sent a fleet and an army to defend Capetown. They arrived first, and the English commander, having heard this from the crew of a ship which he captured at sea, thought it best not to attack the colony.

There were several large Dutch ships with valuable cargoes lying at anchor in Saldanha Bay, out of danger as their crews supposed; but the English fleet sailed in and captured them all, except one which was set on fire.

Commodore Johnstone, the British commander, then returned to Europe, without doing the colony itself any damage. But during this war such heavy losses were inflicted upon the Dutch East India Company that it was never again able to meet its expenses, and rapidly went to ruin.

Dissatisfaction of the burghers with the government. — Meantime the burghers had sent complaints to Holland concerning the conduct of the governor and the chief officials. They asked also for a complete change in the system of government and of carrying on trade, in order that they might have more voice in the management of public affairs and greater liberty in matters relating to commerce. Their petitions reached the mother country at a bad time, for the highest authorities

in Holland were then trying to assist the East India Company, and did not wish in any way to oppose it.

After peace was concluded with England, however, the complaints of the burghers were attended to. It was resolved to send out a new staff of officials, and to make a few changes, which it was hoped would appease the colonists; but not to grant their requests in full, at least not for the time being.

CHAPTER XVII.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1785 TO 1793.

Government of Cornelis Jacob van de Graaff. — Cornelis Jacob van de Graaff, who was sent out to succeed Van Plettenberg as governor, arrived in 1785, and remained six years in the colony. He quarrelled with nearly all the officials at the Cape, wasted a great deal of money that the East India Company managed to borrow, and did nothing to make the colonists respect him. The discontent of the burghers therefore became greater year by year.

Shortly after his arrival, by order of the directors a new drostdy was founded at a place near the source of the Sunday river, which received the name Graaff-Reinet, in honour of the governor and his lady. A landdrost was appointed, with heemraden to assist him, as at Stellenbosch and Swellendam. A school was also opened at once, and after a few years a church was built and a clergyman was stationed there.

The money which the East India Company was able to borrow was soon spent, and then expenses of all kinds in the government had to be greatly reduced. The French troops had been removed when the war with England was over, but other soldiers were sent to take their places. Most of these were now withdrawn, and the colony was left with hardly any other defenders than the burghers.

After Governor Van de Graaff's return to Holland, two men named Nederburgh and Frykenius, who had very great powers given to them, came out to try to pacify the colonists and to devise some plan for making the public revenue equal to the outlay. They imposed several new taxes, and though they gave the burghers freedom to trade with Holland and the Dutch possessions in the Indian seas, they would not allow such trade to be carried on in any other than Dutch vessels, and they even forbade all purchases of goods from foreign ships. This last order caused such distress that they were obliged to withdraw it for a time; but when they left South Africa towards the close of 1793 the discontent of the colonists was greater than ever before.

Second Kaffir war. 1789–1793. — On the eastern frontier the farmers were in sore distress. In 1789 the second Kaffir war was commenced when a large number of these people, who were at feud with a certain chief named Ndlambe, suddenly crossed the Fish river and invaded the colony. The government was afraid of incurring expense, and therefore would not allow a burgher commando to drive the intruders back, but tried by means of presents to induce them to return to their own country. This did not succeed, and the Xosas remained in the colony and continued to steal cattle, until at length a party of farmers took the law into their own hands and attacked a kraal in order to recover what had been taken from them. A few days later the Xosas made an inroad as far as the Zwartkops river, swept off many thousands of cattle, and murdered several white people. The government could

no longer withhold its consent to the intruders being treated as enemies, and the burghers took the field against them; but the landdrost of Graaff-Reinet, who was at the head of the commando, conducted the movements so badly that they entirely failed. Then, four years after the invasion, the government made peace with the intruders, without forcing them out of the colony or getting back anything in return for what they had stolen or seized. The burghers were indignant at this and were almost ready to rebel against the East India Company.

Foundation of the mission station Genadendal. 1792. — There were as yet no mission stations in the colony. Once indeed, when Mr. Swellengrebel was governor, a Moravian missionary, named George Schmit, collected some Hottentots together and tried to teach them to be Christians, but he only remained in South Africa a few years. In 1792, however, three missionaries of the Moravian society arrived at the Cape, and at once proceeded to form the station which is now called Genadendal, that is "the vale of grace". There they induced a number of Hottentots and other coloured people to settle, to whom they gave instruction from books as well as in various kinds of work. Genadendal is thus the oldest mission station in South Africa. It has now a very large population, and is a very pretty place, with many trees growing about it, though it was bare waste land when the missionaries took possession of it.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE END OF THE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S RULE.

Rebellion by burghers of Graaff-Reinet and Swellendam, 1795. — While the eighteenth century was drawing towards its close, all Europe was in a state of disturbance. Some of its people were striving to obtain more freedom, and others were doing all they could to maintain the old order of things. The French nation dethroned its king, put him to death, and set up a republic. Then wars began, which lasted a very long time.

Not only was one country fighting with another, but in some countries the people were quarrelling among themselves. This was the case with Holland. Some of the Dutch people wanted to keep their old form of government with the prince of Orange as stadtholder, and to be in close alliance with England. They called themselves the Orange party. Others wanted to have a republic without a stadtholder, and to be in close alliance with France. They called themselves the patriot party.

The great Dutch East India Company, which owned the Cape Colony, was now bankrupt, though its offices were still open. Its fall caused a great deal of distress in South Africa, for it was no longer able to maintain a competent government and a garrison strong enough for defence, and also because it had issued a large quan-

tity of notes through a bank which it had established, and these notes had become of little value.

Early in 1795 the burghers of Graaff-Reinet set up a government of their own. They asserted, however, that they were loyal to Holland, and objected only to the East India Company.

Almost at the same time the farmers of Swellendam also drove their landdrost away, and formed themselves into a republic. Mr. Sluysken, who was then the head of the Cape government, had no means of enforcing his authority, and therefore the burghers in the distant parts of the country could act in this manner.

The English take possession of the colony, 1795. — While half the colony was thus in rebellion against the East India Company and the other half was inclined to follow the same course, an English fleet with troops on board arrived in Simon's Bay. The officers in command stated that they had come to protect the Cape from an attack by the French, and they produced an order from the prince of Orange to admit their forces into the forts and harbours. But this order was written in England, for the stadtholder was then in exile. A French army had entered Holland, and had been welcomed by the patriot party, so that he had been obliged to leave the country. The republics of France and Holland had then entered into alliance against England.

The officials in South Africa and a few of the burghers were in favour of the stadtholders, or Orange cause, but most of the colonists were in strong sympathy with the patriot party. There were only a few hundred soldiers in the garrison, and nearly all the officers were such

strong partisans of the prince of Orange that they were not disposed to fight against English troops.

The government could not obey the order of a fugitive prince, though the members of the council were attached to his cause. They did not admit the English troops into the forts therefore, and they talked bravely about the duty of defending the colony, though the defence which they really made was of the feeblest kind.

Some soldiers and burghers were sent to form a camp at Muizenburg, where the road from Simonstown to Capetown enters upon the Cape flats, running along a narrow strip of ground between the Steenberg and the shore of False Bay. There they awaited the course of events.

After exchanging letters for eight weeks to no purpose the English forces, having landed at Simonstown, marched along the shore of False Bay, and attacked the Dutch at Muizenburg. Colonel De Lille, who was in command of the camp, fled without any attempt at defence, and the English took possession of the post.

Five weeks later a strong English army marched from Muizenburg towards Capetown. The only persons who were in earnest in trying to prevent the surrender of the country were the burghers and a few of the soldiers, and they were not strong enough to resist with success. In consequence, the colony was given up in September 1795, when a government by English officers took the place of that of the Dutch East India Company.

CHAPTER XIX.

I. GREAT ADVANCE SOUTHWARD OF THE BANTU.

While Europeans had been spreading over a part of South Africa in the manner described, Bantu tribes had been pushing their way southward, and had occupied a much larger portion of the old Bushman territory. Zululand and Natal were now as densely populated as the conditions of savage life would allow, and for some years after the close of the eighteenth century there were fewer quarrels among the chiefs than at any time since their arrival in that part of the continent. The different tribes in Natal, whose ancestors had formed the Abambo horde, had lost remembrance of the particulars of their migration from beyond the Zambesi only two centuries earlier, though the tradition was current among them that they had come down from the north at no very remote date.

The Pondo, Tembu, and Xosa tribes. — South of Natal the Bantu had by this time advanced to the Fish-river, and had conquered all the Hottentot tribes on the way. Though they had destroyed most of the others, they had adopted the girls and some of the boys.

The mixture of blood had given to those in advance a lighter colour and a more excitable disposition, and had affected their language by the introduction of Hottentot clicks in many words. The Bushmen had been entirely exterminated by them, except on the high plateau along the base of the Drakensberg, where the Bantu did not care to live on account of the winter cold. The principal tribes south of Natal were then the Pondo, Tembu, and Xosa, the last named being the one nearest the Cape Colony.

The Ovaherero or Damaras. — On the western side of the continent the Ovaherero, or Damaras, as they are now usually called, had crossed the Kunene river about the beginning of the eighteenth century, and spread over the country far to the south. There was almost constant war between them and the Hottentot tribes. At the close of the century the Swakop river was the boundary between the two races, all the territory north of it being called Damaraland, and the barren stretch of country between it and the Orange river being known as Great Namaqualand.

The Bavenda, Batonga, Barotsi, and Bakwena. — But it was on the wide central plateau that the greatest advance of the Bantu had been made. Vast hordes had crossed the Zambesi and spread over the land far to the south, conquering the earlier inhabitants where there were any, and settling in vacant places where there were none. Among them, in addition to the Bavenda, who have already been mentioned, there were Batonga, who were closely connected by blood with the people

of the same name living on the southern bank of the Zambesi in 1500. There were also Barotsi, not very distantly related to the Makalanga, and above all Bakwena, who added enormously to the number of the Betshuana previously settled in the country. The Bakwena at the close of the eighteenth century occupied the whole territory on the eastern border of the Kalahari desert from the Botletle river on the north to the Molopo on the south, and had spread over nearly the entire surface of the land between the Zoutpansbergen and the Vaal. A few of the tribes of this name had even crossed the Vaal very recently, and settled between its upper waters and the Putiatsana river in the territory now called Basutoland.

The Baputi and Bataung. — About the middle of the eighteenth century some Bantu stragglers crossed the Drakensberg from Natal, and thereafter led a wandering life along the upper Caledon. They were subsequently joined by a small party from the north-east under a Baputi captain, whom they took for their chief, and thenceforward termed themselves Baputi. These people claimed to be the first Bantu residents between the Vaal and Orange rivers. But it cannot have been long after their arrival when the Bataung tribe, fleeing from the Barolong, crossed the Vaal and settled along the Sand river. Then some years later various Bakwena tribes followed and took possession of the land between the Vaal and the Putiatsana, driving the Baputi farther south, while at the same time several other little bands moved in from the east and the north-east, and filled up any vacant places.

2. STRUGGLES BETWEEN BANTU AND BUSHMEN AND HOTTENTOTS.

Bantu and Bushmen. — Wherever the Bantu settled the Bushmen were hunted down, but where there were mountain ranges in which they could take refuge they were not entirely exterminated for many years. They were not looked upon as human beings, but as wild animals that it was necessary to kill in order to safeguard the flocks and herds. The Bushmen, on the other hand, must have regarded the big black men as intruders who were robbing them of their streams of water and their game, and from whom it was quite fair to steal cattle in order to keep themselves from starvation.

The Barolong and the Koranas. — The southern part of Betshuanaland was at this time in a state of extreme disorder. The Hottentots who had moved away from the neighbourhood of the Cape peninsula after the Europeans came had increased greatly on the plain south of the Orange river, and had divided into a number of little bands, each under its own chief and having a title of its own, but all called by the general name of Korqunas or Koranas. Towards the close of the eighteenth century some of their bands crossed the Orange, and wandered about with their cattle north of that river. The most powerful of the Betshuana tribes were then the Barolong, under the chief Tao, which means Lion, who was living at the Hart river, at the place still called after him Taung. He was a cruel and treacherous chief, but the Barolong were very proud of him,

because he had conquered many other tribes and was known far and wide as a skilful leader in war.

By an act of treachery Tao brought about the death of the chief and of many of the men of the largest of the Korana bands, and thereby provoked a contest which lasted many years. The murdered chief was succeeded by his brother Taaibosch, who proved a skilful and daring leader, and being aided by some of the other bands, was able to carry on war with the Barolong and do them some damage.

After a time another leader of note made his appearance. This was a man of mixed European and Hottentot blood, named Jan Bloem, who was the head of a notorious robber band. The Korana band known as the Springboks, to save itself from his attacks, elected him as their chief, and at once became a body of importance.

By the help of unprincipled men on the colonial border Jan Bloem managed to procure horses, guns, and ammunition in exchange for cattle taken from the Betshuana, and then a general system of robbery was established. Tao was driven from the Hart river, and died from wounds, upon which his tribe was broken up into four separate sections. Every one who possessed anything ran the risk of attack, even the distant Bakwena being plundered without mercy. In 1800 Jan Bloem died of poison, but his son, who succeeded him as chief of the Springboks, carried on a career of robbery and strife. But now the Bangwaketse tribe under the chief Makaba was becoming the most powerful in Betshuanaland, and put a check upon the forays of the Koranas.

CHAPTER XX.

THE FIRST ENGLISH GOVERNMENT OF THE CAPE COLONY.

Cape Colony under new rule. — After the capitulation of the Cape Colony in September 1795, the English officers did all they could to gain the favour of the colonists. The government appeared to be now more despotic than that of the Dutch East India Company, for the old council was done away with; but one or two much needed reforms in the system of conducting affairs were made, and more were promised. It was announced that every one was at liberty to sell the products of the country whenever and wherever he chose, and to the best customer he could obtain.

Under the East India Company the people did not enjoy this right until the wants of the government were supplied at prices fixed by a board, which were always low. Only after the government was provided with as much as it needed, were the burghers free to sell their grain, or their wine, or their cattle, to any one of any nation who offered to buy.

The announcement of the English officers was therefore received with much favour, and the people living in that part of the colony which was settled before the middle of the eighteenth century submitted quietly to the new order of things. The burghers of Swellendam

with the others promised to obey the English rulers, and the republic which they had set up ceased to exist.

After a few weeks some of the officers highest in rank left the colony, and General Craig remained alone at the head of affairs. He had a strong force of soldiers to support his authority and to resist any attack that might be made by a French or Dutch fleet. As he was just and honest, he was esteemed by the burghers, though of course they could not love a man who had conquered their country.

Surrender of Admiral Lucas's fleet in Saldanha Bay, 1796. — When tidings reached Holland that the Cape had been taken by the English, a fleet of nine ships of war with soldiers on board was sent out to try to recover it. Admiral Lucas, who was in command, put into Saldanha Bay, hoping that the colonists would rise and join him. But just at that time a very strong British fleet happened to be in Table Bay, and it sailed to Saldanha Bay and shut the Dutch ships in. General Craig with a powerful army at the same time marched overland to the bay, and prevented any one from coming ashore. Thus hemmed in on both sides by forces stronger than his own, Admiral Lucas was obliged to surrender his ships and everything in them without firing a shot.

Opposition of burghers. — The people living east of the Gamtoos river were not at first willing to obey the new rulers, and would not receive the landdrost whom General Craig appointed, but declared that they would abide by the government which they had set up for themselves. No merchandise of any kind was then al-

lowed to be taken to them for sale, and they were cut off from contact with the rest of the country. Efforts were made by the French and the Dutch in India to convey powder, lead, and clothing to them through Algoa Bay, but these efforts failed, for the coast was guarded by British ships. After holding out for fifteen months, they thought it wise to come to terms, after which they were treated in the same way as other colonists.

Governorship of the Earl of Macartney, 1797-98. — When the Cape had been two years under English rule, the Earl of Macartney arrived as governor. He was very friendly to all who were attached to the British cause, but he was equally stern with those who were not. Any remarks in favour of the French or of a republic were severely punished, and all who would not swear to be loyal to the king of England were banished from the country.

Freedom of trade also came to an end at this time. Just as under the Dutch East India Company, the farmers were obliged to sell their produce at fixed prices to the government for the maintenance of the soldiers and sailors, though higher rates were paid than in the olden times. A great many soldiers were kept in the country, and numerous ships of war put in for supplies, so that as far as a market for their produce was concerned, the colonists were better off than ever before. But at the same time they chafed under the restrictions upon their trade and upon freedom of speech. In all other respects the government of the Earl of Macartney was praiseworthy, for he allowed no oppression

except by his own direct orders and for what he regarded as the benefit of Great Britain. He remained in South Africa only a little over eighteen months, as he had been sent out to establish a system of government, and could leave whenever he chose after that was done.

CHAPTER XXI

THE FIRST ENGLISH GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONY. (*Continued*).

Rebellion on the eastern frontier, 1799. — After the departure of the earl of Macartney for England, General Dundas acted for a time as governor. He had not been long at the head of affairs when tidings reached Capetown that some of the farmers in the eastern part of the colony had risen in opposition to the English rule. It was not known whether those concerned in the rising were few or many, so a strong body of troops was sent against them, partly over land and partly by sea to Algoa Bay. Upon the arrival of the soldiers at the scene of the disturbance, it was found that only about one hundred and sixty men were in arms against the government, and most of them surrendered when called upon to do so. Twenty of these were sent to Capetown, where they were kept in prison over three years, while the others were fined and released. A few who would not surrender took refuge in Kaffirland, where some met violent deaths and others lived as outlaws.

Third Kaffir War, 1799-1803. — A much more serious event at this time was the commencement of the third Kaffir war. Two Xosa chiefs, named Ndlambe and Gaika, were at feud with each other, and Ndlambe was beaten in a battle and made prisoner by Gaika. After

a while he escaped, and fled over the Fish river to be out of the way of his enemy. He had many followers with him, and as soon as he crossed the boundary he was joined by most of the Xosas who had been living in the colony since the former war, as well as by a number of Hottentots. They spread themselves over a great extent of country, and laid it waste. A mixed force of burghers and soldiers was got ready to drive them back, but the government was very anxious to avoid a war, if by any means it could be found possible. An envoy was sent to the leaders of the Xosas and Hottentots, who made them an offer that if they would engage not to molest the colonists again they might remain in the country along the coast between the Bushman's and Fish rivers, and would not be molested there. These terms they accepted, and so no attempt was made to punish them for what they had done.

They did not, however, cease to plunder the white people, and after submitting to their robberies for three years, the government was obliged to send a burgher force against them. A very brave and able man, named Tjaart van der Walt, was in command of this force, but he was killed in battle, and then the colonists lost heart and dispersed. A few months later another burgher commando assembled, but peace was made without further fighting, when the Xosas promised to return to their own country as soon as they could, and the Hottentots engaged to abstain from roaming about and plundering.

Arrival of first missionaries of the London Society, 1799. — In the last year of the eighteenth century the

London Missionary Society began to send its agents to South Africa. The first station which it founded was Bethelsdorp, near Algoa Bay, where a number of Hottentots were gathered together by Dr. Van der Kemp and the Rev. Mr. Read.

Governorship of Sir George Yonge, 1799-1801. — Sir George Yonge was then at the head of affairs. He was greatly disliked by the English residents in Capetown, as well as by the colonists, for in his time the government was as corrupt as in the days of the younger Van der Stel. The history of one of these men is the history of the other. The colonists complained of both, and in each instance their complaints were well founded. Both were recalled, and both were dismissed by the supreme authorities and pronounced unworthy of being employed again. When Sir George Yonge was dismissed, General Dundas became acting governor for the second time.

Journey of Messrs. Truter and Somerville to Lithako, 1801. — Owing to the robberies by the Xosas, cattle were so scarce that it was difficult to obtain sufficient meat for the soldiers and sailors, and two gentlemen named Truter and Somerville were therefore sen to the country north of the Orange to try to purchase oxen from the tribes there. They did not succeed in getting many cattle, but they brought back a great deal of information concerning the people called Betshuana, of whom little was known before.

Restoration of the Cape Colony to Holland, 1803. — After seven years of fighting in Europe the differ-

ent nations agreed to make peace, though, as will presently be seen, they did not keep it long. One of the conditions was that England should restore the Cape Colony to Holland— then called the Batavian Republic, — and in consequence in February 1803 the government was transferred to Dutch officers and the English soldiers and civil servants left the country.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE COLONY UNDER THE BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.

Rule of Mr. De Mist and General Janssens. — The new Dutch government was liked by the colonists much more than that of the East India Company had been. Two very excellent men, Mr. De Mist and General Janssens, were at its head. Mr. De Mist's duty, after receiving transfer of everything from the English, was to place the various officials in their positions, to find out the wants of the people, and to make any necessary regulations. General Janssens was governor and commander of the soldiers sent from Holland. The council was restored, though with only four members besides the governor as president.

Establishment of drostdies at Uitenhage and Tulbagh, 1804. — Mr. De Mist made a tour through the colony, and had meetings with the farmers wherever he went. They had not many complaints, except that some of them thought the landdrosts and clergymen were too few in number, and those nearest the eastern border talked much of their losses from Kaffir robbers. More clergymen were not to be had, but Mr. De Mist decided to establish two new drostdies. For one, a site was chosen within easy reach of Algoa Bay, and a military officer, who had command of a company of soldiers,

was stationed there as landdrost. The place was called Uitenhage by the governor, that being a name connected with Mr. De Mist's family. The other new drostdy was erected close to the church of Roodezand, which now received the name of Tulbagh, in memory of the good governor of bygone days. Thus it was easier than before for many people to reach a court of justice, or to pay their taxes, though some had still to travel several hundred miles for either purpose.

Many efforts were made to induce the Kaffirs in the colony to return to their own country, but they always gave as an excuse that they could not do so through fear of Gaika. That chief was persuaded to promise that he would not molest them if they went back quietly, and then they said they could not trust his word.

The colony had not been three months in possession of the Batavian Republic when war broke out again in Europe. From the day the tidings reached General Janssens, his chief thought was to prepare for an attack by the English, which he was certain would sooner or later be made. He had only a few soldiers, and therefore he relied mainly upon the burghers.

First post between Capetown and the interior, 1805. — Meantime matters affecting thewel fare of the country were not neglected. Efforts were made to introduce a system of public schools, and it was through no fault of the government that they did not succeed. The improvement of horned cattle and sheep was urged upon the farmers, and a society having that object in view was aided in every possible way. There was as yet no post for the conveyance of letters and papers from Cape-

town to the different villages, but one was now established.

The colony at this time contained nearly twenty-six thousand white people and thirty thousand slaves.

Second Seizure of the Colony by Great Britain, 1806. — For nearly three years after the renewal of war in Europe England did not molest the Cape Colony, because she had too much else on hand. But the position of this country, as the turning point on the ocean road to India, was so important that it was only neglected for a time, not forgotten. As soon as more pressing matters were attended to, a great fleet was made ready, a strong army was sent on board, and the ships set sail for South Africa.

The fleet cast anchor between Robben Island and the mainland, and shortly afterwards over four thousand soldiers, commanded by General Baird, were set ashore, and began to march towards Capetown. General Janssens had hardly as many men altogether, and he was obliged to divide them into two bodies, one to defend Capetown and the other to march with him against the English. He could not take them all with him, because in that case the fleet might capture the town while he was at a distance.

The armies met on the plain at the foot of the Blauwberg, and on the 8th of January 1806 a battle was fought, which was won by the English. The result was that Great Britain again became the owner of the Cape Colony.

CHAPTER XXIII.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1806 TO 1813.

Governorship of the Earl of Caledon. — As soon as General Janssens signed the conditions under which the colony was surrendered, all the burghers submitted to the new rulers, for it would have been folly to attempt to hold out against such an army as General Baird had with him. The council was done away with, but in other respects the form of government was not changed. Dutch continued to be the language of the courts of law and of all departments with which the colonists came most in contact, though the highest offices were filled by Englishmen. The commander of the army acted as governor, until one could be sent out from England. The Earl of Caledon, a very young, but a very able and good man, was appointed to the post.

Hottentots made subject to colonial laws, 1809. — The chief event during the Earl of Caledon's stay in South Africa was a great change that was made in the position of the Hottentots. These people had always been regarded as under the government of chiefs of their own race, and were only subject to colonial courts of law when they committed offences against Europeans or slaves. But they had long since thrown off the authority of their chiefs, and most of them

wandered about the country or were in the service of farmers, without having any head whom they recognised and obeyed. There were tracts of land reserved for their use, but even on these no one had any real power. The consequence was that when one Hottentot injured another, the one wronged had no means of redress, and they lived in general without order or restraint upon their passions. The Earl of Caledon rectified this by bringing them all under the colonial laws, and requiring them to have a fixed place of residence. Some of them did not like this, and moved away north of the Orange river, but those that remained in the colony were greatly improved by the measure.

Foundation of Clanwilliam (1808), George (1811), and Caledon (1811). — At this time the villages of Clanwilliam, George, and Caledon were founded. The first was named after an Irish nobleman, the second after the reigning king, and the third after the governor. Courts of justice were established in all, and churches were opened in the second and third.

Governorship of Sir John Cradock and fourth Kaffir war (1812). — Sir John Cradock succeeded the Earl of Caledon as governor. He found that the Xosas in the colony had taken possession of all the land along the coast east of the Sunday river, and would neither return to their own country nor desist from plundering the farmers who lived nearest to them. A strong force of burghers and soldiers was therefore assembled, and Ndlambe had the choice given to him of going quietly over the Fish river with his people, or of being com-

pelled to do so by force of arms. He replied that he had won the land in the last war, and meant to keep it. On the following day Mr. Stockenstrom, landdrost of Graaff-Reinet, with a party of farmers, met a number of Xosas, and tried to persuade them to leave the colony in peace. After talking about an hour, the Xosas suddenly made a rush upon the white men, and murdered Mr. Stockenstrom and nine others. Then Colonel Graham, who was in command of the assembled force of burghers and soldiers, issued orders to attack Ndlambe and his people, and in the course of a few weeks they were all driven over the Fish river into their own country, and the fourth Kaffir war was over.

Foundation of Grahamstown and Cradock, 1812. — To prevent their coming back, a line of posts was formed along the frontier, and parties of farmers and soldiers were stationed in them to keep constant guard. The largest of these posts was named Grahamstown, in honour of Colonel Graham. Courts of law were established there and at a place a long way to the north, which was named Cradock in honour of the governor.

The Black Circuit, 1812. — The war was hardly over when much excitement was caused by a series of charges of cruelty by colonists towards coloured people, which were made in England by some persons who believed every idle tale they heard. Orders were sent out to the governor to have the charges tried by the judges, and to see that justice was done. In consequence, a great number of men and women were brought before the next circuit court. Most of the charges were proved

to be silly stories, with no foundation in fact, and very few were found to be cases of real cruelty. But for long years afterwards colonists spoke of the indignity to which they or their relatives had been subjected by being brought to trial on such flimsy pretexts, and these sessions came to be known as the black circuit.

CHAPTER XXIV.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1814 TO 1820.

Governorship of Lord Charles Somerset. — The next governor was Lord Charles Somerset, a son of the Duke of Beaufort and a brother of the Marquis of Worcester. In honour of him and his relatives, Somerset East, Somerset West, Beaufort West, Fort Beaufort, Port Beaufort, and Worcester were named. All were founded while he was governor.

Slachter's Nek rebellion, 1815. — The year after his arrival about fifty farmers who lived near the Fish river rose in rebellion. There was a regiment of Hottentot soldiers in the frontier posts, and some of them were sent to arrest a man named Frederik Bezuidenhout, who was charged with assaulting a servant. As he would not surrender, one of the soldiers shot him dead. His brother and some relatives then induced their neighbours to join in driving the Hottentot regiment away, and so began the Slachter's Nek rebellion, as the event has ever since been called.

A military force was sent against the insurgents, and a number of burghers, who looked upon the revolt as an act of madness, joined in trying to suppress it. It was put down with ease, and all who took part in it were made prisoners except the leader, Jan Bezuiden-

hout, who would not surrender, and, with his wife and little son helping him, stood at bay until he was shot dead.

Five of the prisoners, after trial, were hanged, and others were banished from the frontier. The burghers who had assisted the government were greatly shocked by this severe punishment, for they had not thought that they were helping to bring their countrymen to death. By them as well as by the families of those who took part in the rebellion, the event was remembered with very bitter feelings towards the authorities.

The fifth Kaffir war, 1818 1819. — In 1818 war with the Kaffirs commenced once more. After Ndlambe was driven out of the colony, he and Gaika were constantly quarrelling, until at length in the battle of Amalinde, which was fought on the Debe flats, he gained a great victory. He had become stronger than his rival, as he was aided by a man of influence, named Makana, who professed to be a seer.

Gaika fled westward, and sent to beg Lord Charles Somerset to help him. He was regarded as a friend of the colony, and therefore the governor complied with his wish. A strong commando of burghers and soldiers went across the Fish river, and attacked Ndlambe's people, who were beaten and obliged to hide themselves in the forests.

But as soon as the commando returned and was disbanded, Ndlambe's followers made a rush into the colony, and did a great deal of damage. In April 1819 with Makana at their head they attacked Grahamstown, but were repulsed with heavy loss. A strong army was then sent into their country, and Ndlambe's power was completely broken. After this Gaika ceded to the

colony the whole territory from the Fish river on one side to the Keiskama and Tyumie rivers on the other.

Arrival of British Settlers, 1820. — And now we come to a very important event in the history of South Africa. This was the arrival of nearly five thousand English, Scotch, and Irish people, men, women, and children, and their settlement in the districts called Albany and Bathurst. Like the Dutch and the Huguenots, they came to make South Africa their home and the home of their children.

The first Dutch settlers landed in April 1652, the first Huguenot settlers in April 1688, and the first British settlers in April 1820. The Dutch and the Huguenots landed on the shore of Table Bay, the British settlers on the sandy beach of Algoa Bay. There was then nothing more than a fort and two or three houses where now the thriving town of Port Elizabeth stands. Grahamstown also was a mere hamlet. Both owe their present importance to the British settlers of 1820.

Such a number of people could not remove to a country whose climate and soil and customs were strange to them, without suffering great hardships at first. They had ground given to them, but many did not know how to cultivate it. Rust destroyed the crops of wheat, and in a very heavy fall of rain their gardens were washed away. Some then moved to different villages in the colony, and tried other ways of making a living, in which they succeeded much better. By industry, patience, and prudence, in the course of a few years nearly all overcame their troubles and found themselves in a thriving condition.

CHAPTER XXV.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1821 TO 1827.

Governorship of Lord Charles Somerset (continued). — Lord Charles Somerset could do almost as he liked in the country, for there was as yet no parliament. He could even impose taxes and make new laws without consulting any one except the secretary of state for the colonies, who was in England. To those who opposed him in any way he acted as a tyrant, but he was not without good qualities, and while he was governor the colony showed many marks of progress.

Courts of justice, churches, mission stations, and schools were greatly increased, and several new villages were founded. The South African public library was opened at Capetown in 1818, and the first lighthouse on the coast was built at Green Point on the shore of Table Bay in 1824. In the same year a waggon road was made through the Drakenstein mountains behind French Hoek, which, though not much used since other passes have been opened in the same range, was for a long time a very great convenience.

The governor took great interest in the improvement of horses, horned cattle, and sheep, and caused animals of the very best breeds to be imported. Through his efforts in this direction, in the course of a few years large and strong horses were raised in the colony in suf-

ficient numbers to supply the wants of the English army in India, and mules were bred for the sugar planters of Mauritius.

The boundary of the colony was extended on the north-east to the Orange river.

Attempts to check Xosa inroads. — An attempt was made to keep people of any race from settling in the country between the Koonap and Fish rivers on one side and the Tyumie and Keiskama on the other, so that there might be an open tract of land between the colonists and the Xosas. Soldiers were stationed at a post on the western bank of the Keiskama, which was named Fort Willshire, to patrol up towards the mountains and down towards the sea, and prevent either colonists or Kaffirs from trespassing on the ground. A little later another party of soldiers was stationed at a place on the Kat river, named Fort Beaufort, to assist the others in this duty.

But the plan did not succeed. Thieves managed to evade the soldiers and get across the ceded territory — as the vacant land was called — with cattle stolen from the colonists, and then parties of Xosas who were believed to be friendly were permitted so settle there, on condition of good conduct. It was hoped that they would prevent thieves from passing through. But so far was this from being the case that the plan only led to a worse feeling. Thefts continued to be frequent, and no other way could be devised of stopping such losses than by sending patrols of soldiers and burghers to the Xosa kraals to recover the cattle or to obtain others in their stead. Sometimes there were quarrels, in which

lives were lost, and sometimes Xosa captains had to be driven away from the ground. This was the state of affairs on the eastern frontier until the next war.

Creation of a council to advise the governors, 1825. — About a year before Lord Charles Somerset left the colony, a council of six members was appointed by the authorities in England to give the governors advice and assistance. This was a step — though a short one — in the direction from pure autocracy towards the present form of government.

English is made the official language. — An order was received at the same time that all official documents should be written in English, and that after three years all proceedings in the courts of law should be conducted in that language. In Simonstown, Grahamstown, and Port Elizabeth the exclusive use of English in the courts of law was not objected to, but in other parts of the colony, where Dutch was spoken by nearly all the people, the order was regarded as a very serious grievance. Many requests were made to the government to annul it, but to no purpose, and thus English became the official language of the country.

The first South African newspaper other than the Government Gazette, 1824. — The later years of Lord Charles Somerset's rule in South Africa were marked by various troubles. There was distress among the farmers, the revenue was falling off, the public debt was increasing, and complaints of the governor's tyranny were general. Among other acts of his which

caused much clamour was the suppression of a newspaper called the *Commercial Advertiser*, edited by Messrs. Fairbairn and Pringle, because he feared that the report of a trial in which he was interested might appear in it.

Retirement of Lord Charles Somerset. — At length so many charges against him were made to the British parliament that he was obliged to go to England to defend himself. He left the colony in 1826, and never returned. Some time after he reached London he thought the most prudent course was to resign his office, and the charges against him were then allowed to drop.

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE WARS OF THE ZULU CHIEF TSHAKA.

The rise of the Zulu tribe. — From 1820 to 1828 a great part of South Africa beyond the border of the Cape Colony was the scene of such destructive warfare as the world has seldom witnessed in modern times. In the territory called Zululand there was living a Bantu chief named Tshaka, who by his great ability as a leader in war had risen to power as the head of two united tribes. For a barbarian, he was a man of large powers of mind, but he was cruel and ferocious almost beyond description, as he had no regard whatever for human life. He formed all his male followers into regiments, had them thoroughly drilled, armed them with a short but heavy assagai that served as a sword, and then attacked the tribes around him. His ambition was to be the ruler of them all, and the only courses left to them were to submit to him and adopt his system, to flee, or to be exterminated. Some tried to resist, but were overthrown with ease, because their military discipline was far inferior to that of the Zulus. All were put to death without mercy except the choicest of the boys and girls, who were adopted in the usual Bantu manner.

War begets war. — Of those that tried to flee, many were destroyed by the people they encountered

on the way, but four bands must be mentioned on account of the awful havoc they created far from their earlier places of abode.

Matiwane. — The great Amangwane tribe, under the chief Matiwane, was the first of these. They fell upon the Hlubi tribe, who were living along the Umzinyati river, and routed them with dreadful slaughter. Some of the Hlubis then fled to the south, but the main body tried to escape by crossing the Drakensberg. The Amangwane followed, and the two tribes, though fighting with each other when they met, fell upon all the Bakwena and other people who were living between the Putiatsana and Vaal rivers. These, being unable to make successful resistance, suffered dreadfully, and at length in one great horde crossed the Vaal and set their faces westward. One of its leaders was a woman named Ma Ntatisi, and from her the whole horde came to be called Mantâtis, often corrupted into Makatees.

The Mantatis utterly exterminated the Bakwena tribes along the northern bank of the Vaal, but were defeated and driven southward by the Bangwaketse under their renowned chief Makaba. Soon after this they were defeated again by a body of Griquas, and then broke up into several sections. One of these, under Ma Ntatisi, returned to the banks of the upper Caledon, another, under Sebetoane, made its way northward to the Zambesi, where it afterwards became famous as the Makololo. Others wandered about destroying and being destroyed.

The Amangwane finally crushed the Hlubis in a great battle fought on the bank of the Caledon, but being

defeated afterwards by a Zulu army sent against them, they crossed the Drakensberg into Tembuland, drove a large section of the Tembus into the Cape Colony, and plundered those that remained behind. The Tembus and Xosas then sent to ask for aid from the white people, and a force was sent to their assistance, by which Matatiwane's power was completely destroyed.

Swangendaba. — The next tribe that fled from Tshaka was under a chief named Swangendaba. They retired northward plundering all who were in their way, and destroying multitudes without mercy. In 1823 they ravaged the country around Delagoa Bay, where they were termed by the white people Vatwahs and Olontontes. A little later they fought a great battle on the bank of the Sabi river with a horde that followed them, and were defeated. They then continued their course northward, crossed the Zambesi, and finally settled on the western shore of Lake Nyassa, where under the name of the Angoni down to our own times they gave themselves up to a career of plunder, murder, and devastation among the earlier inhabitants.

Sotshangana. — The third tribe that fled rather than await attack by Tshaka was under a chief named Sotshangana, from whom the descendants of the horde are called Shangaans to the present day. Sotshangana cut his way to the Sabi river, where he defeated Swangendaba, and then laid waste the whole territory between the great interior plain and the sea northward to the Zambesi river. Up and down that vast extent of territory he kept moving for many years, and even for

a time expelled the Portuguese from Delagoa Bay, Inhambane, Sofala, and Sena. His people remained as a scourge in the territory along the coast until 1895, when they were conquered by the Portuguese, and their chief, a grandson of Sotshangana, was banished from the country.

Moselekatse. — Far more destructive than any of these was part of Tshaka's own army that fled from his wrath under the ferocious Umsilikazi or, as commonly called, Moselékatse. This band pursued a westerly course, exterminating the tribes in its way, in order to leave an absolute desert between it and Zululand, and finally settled on the banks of the Mariqua river. From that centre Moselekatse sent out his warriors to plunder the Betshuana, some of whom were killed and others driven into the Kalahari desert.

Further results of Tshaka's campaigns. — All the tribes that were left for a great distance north of the Tugela river, to save their lives, submitted to Tshaka, and took the Zulu name. Their men were incorporated in his army, and placed under the orders of his officers. From the Tugela to the Umzimvubu the inhabitants were so thoroughly destroyed that there were not as many black people left in all that territory as there are to-day in the single town of Durban.

Some wretched remnants of former tribes managed to escape across the Umzimvubu, where they were permitted by the Tembus and the Xosas to remain, though in general they were treated with scant kindness. They called themselves by their old tribal titles, but the

Tembus and Xosas gave them a name which Europeans have turned into Fingos, and which means wanderers or vagrants. In course of time they adopted this name themselves, and now many of their descendants know no other.

During these wars cultivation of the land ceased and many thousands died of starvation. Some resorted to cannibalism as the only means of sustaining life. The exact number of the Bantu who perished in Africa south of the Zambesi during this time of horror cannot be stated, but it must have amounted to nearly two millions.

Death of Tshaka, 1828. — The originator of all this destruction, the tiger-like Tshaka, was murdered by two of his brothers and his most trusted servant in September 1828, and one of these brothers, Dingan by name, succeeded him as chief of the Zulus. He was a much less able man, but equally cruel and far more treacherous, and if he did not cause as much loss of life, it was only because there were not many people left within his reach whom he could plunder and kill.

CHAPTER XXVII.

FORMATION OF THE BASUTO TRIBE.

The rule of Moshesh. — The wave of war that rolled over the land left no people whatever in the territory between the Caledon and Vaal rivers. Most of the former residents had perished, but a few had managed to escape to the Cape Colony, where they were placed in service with farmers and townspeople. A few others had taken refuge in the hilly region south of the Caledon, where they were safe from pursuit from their enemies, but where it was difficult to procure food of any kind.

At this time a young man named Moshesh, whose father was a petty chief of a little section of Bakwena, comes first into notice. He possessed great vigour of body, and in intellect was one of the most remarkable men that any section of the Bantu has ever produced. As a strategist in war, he has never had an equal among the coloured tribes in South Africa, and though he was untruthful and unscrupulous in taking what was not his own, he was generous and kindhearted to a very high degree. He was certainly the wisest and most prudent chief that white men have ever been acquainted with in Africa.

First stronghold at Butabute. — Moshesh collected as many young men about him as he could, and then

looked for a strong position in which to defend himself. Butabute appeared most suitable for the purpose, and there he took up his abode, maintaining himself and his people by seizing food wherever it was to be had. In 1823 Ma Ntatisi, who had just returned to the Caledon, attacked him there in order to get possession of a few head of cattle he had collected, but was successfully resisted. In 1824, however, she returned and laid siege to Butabute, until Moshesh was reduced to such straits that he was obliged to abandon his stronghold.

Removal to Thaba Bosigo, 1824. — He had heard of isolated mountains in the country south of that occupied by the Bakwena in earlier years, and he resolved to take possession of one of them. The one selected by his chief adviser was Thaba Bosigo, a natural fortress of immense strength, in the territory then occupied by the few Baputi who had not fled far away. The utter thoughtlessness of barbarians is shown by the fact that the Baputi chief Noné was living in a kraal at the foot of the mountain, instead of on the top, though he had a fair supply of food. He was easily driven away, his provisions were seized, and Moshesh and his followers went to live on the top of the mountain, which afterwards became famous. This was in 1824, and it is from this date that the history of the Basuto tribe commences.

Being now in possession of Thaba Bosigo, Moshesh fortified the few steep paths that led to the plateau at the top, and was thus in a position of perfect security, provided only he could obtain provisions. He established a very perfect system of scouting, so that wherever there

were cattle unguarded, even as far away as Tembuland, he made raids upon them, and soon had as many as he needed. The harassed fugitives in the wild country to the north-east now began to rally round the young chief, who could give them protection and food, and as their hereditary rulers had either been killed or had fled, there was no difficulty in their recognising him as their head. So his power grew steadily, and his fame spread widely. The Bakwena fugitives in the Cape Colony, hearing of him, hastened to join him, the Hlubis that escaped after the downfall and death of their chief in battle placed themselves under him, the cannibals came from their caves in the Malutis and begged him to help them to live again as rational beings: all were welcomed, every one was treated in the same kindly manner.

Tshaka and, after his death, Dingan were appeased by presents of furs and protestations that Moshesh was their most devoted servant. Moselekatse sent an army, which besieged Thaba Bosigo, but could not take the stronghold, and when it was compelled by hunger to retreat, the wise chief sent it food and expressed a desire for peace. Thus the principal Bantu despoilers were kept away from the country, and though Ma Ntatisi remained on the upper Caledon, Moshesh was soon in a position to repel any attacks from her. But for several years he and the people who had gathered around him were subject to the depredations of the Korana clans, whose home was far away to the west, but who were able, through possessing horses and guns, to make sudden swoops upon Basuto kraals, to shoot down all who opposed them, and to drive off the cattle

and even such children as they wished to make servants of. These depredations ceased, however, with the destruction of many of the Korana clans in later years and the growth of Moshesh's power.

Arrival of French Missionaries. — In 1833 a very important event took place in connection with the new Basuto tribe. This was the arrival of the first French missionaries, who have since done a very great deal for the advancement of the people. Moshesh received them gladly, and placed a large number of people, among whom were two of his own sons, under their instruction, with whom they founded the station Morija in the previously uninhabited country south of Thaba Bosigo. A few Baputi had once roamed over this territory, but they had long since abandoned it, and the people who had gathered round Moshesh before this time had settled north of Thaba Bosigo, chiefly along the Putiatsana, where Bakwena tribes had lived before the destructive wars of Tshaka. This then was the first expansion of the new tribe towards the south.

Within a few months the Bantu population of the territory between the Vaal and Orange rivers was very greatly increased by the arrival first of a horde of fugitives from their former homes north-west of the Vaal, who were collected together by a French missionary and led by him to the district on the northern bank of the Orange since called Bethulie, and next by a large number of Barolong, who were led by some Wesleyan missionaries to Thaba Ntshu, now the district of Moroka, where their descendants still live. A little later another horde was led from the north by a French mis-

sionary to a place on the western bank of the Caledon about midway between Thaba Bosigo and Bethulie, where a settlement was made, which was in existence more than thirty years.

None of these new communities, however, became subject to Moshesh, though they added to his security. But at this time his power was growing very rapidly as fragments of former tribes came to join him, among which must be particularly mentioned nearly all that were left of the Bataung that had taken a prominent part in the devastations of the Mantati horde.

Thus the tribe as it exists to-day is a composite one, though its principal members are Bakwena. The mode of its formation, like the wars of Tshaka, must have been just an instance of what has been taking place among the Bantu from time immemorial.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

EVENTS IN THE COLONY FROM 1828 TO 1834.

General Bourke's governorship; changes in administration. — During the tenure of office of General Bourke, who acted as governor after Lord Charles Somerset left the colony, some great changes were made. Among others, the constitution of the supreme court was altered, and the courts of landdrosts and heemraden were done away with, resident magistrates and civil commissioners taking their places. The expense of government was reduced, as the country was in debt, and its revenue could not be increased. Of late years the Hottentots had been made subject to several restraints, which were intended quite as much for their own good as for the benefit of the white people. Thus they were not allowed to wander about the country in idleness, and under certain circumstances their children could be bound as apprentices to colonists for ten years. Under these laws they were becoming more steady and useful than before, but there were people who thought it wrong that they should not be free to live as they pleased. General Bourke thought so too, and so a law was made that they should have the same liberty in all respects as Europeans.

Formation of Hottentot settlement. — In 1829 a Hottentot settlement was formed at the sources of

the Kat river, one of the most fertile and beautiful tracts of land in South Africa. To each family a plot of good ground was given, and all that was not adapted for gardens and cornfields was left for a common pasture. At first it seemed as if the settlement would succeed, but in course of time most of the Hottentots proved themselves unfit for a life of steady industry.

Sir Lowry Cole followed General Bourke as governor. Colesberg was founded in his time in 1830, and was named in his honour. Another memento of this governor is Sir Lowry's pass, over the Hottentots-Holland mountains, where he caused an excellent waggon road to be made.

He was married to a daughter of the Earl of Malmesbury, and as a village was formed at this time at Zwartland's church, he named it from his father-in-law's title.

The South African College was opened in 1829. Some newspapers which were commenced then are still published, and the first savings banks and insurance offices in the country were established.

Governor Sir Benjamin D'Urban arrived in 1834. He brought with him orders from England under which a council to make laws was created, distinct from the council of advice. It consisted of the governor as president, five of the highest officials, and five colonists selected by the governor. It was termed the legislative council, the other, whose duty was to give the governor advice, being called the executive council. Thus a further step was made towards the system which now exists.

Liberation of the slaves, 1834. — The first year of Sir Benjamin D'Urban's residence in South Africa was marked by an event of very great importance: the setting free of the slaves in the colony. For a long time the laws had been gradually limiting the power of the masters and giving more rights to the slaves, until at length the British parliament resolved that slavery should cease entirely, and all men should have the same rights and privileges.

The colonists were perfectly willing that the slaves should be set free, but they wanted the process to be gradual, and a strict vagrant law to be made, so as to prevent the liberated people from wandering about in idleness and committing crimes. A great many Hottentots and others had been living in that manner ever since they had been released from restraint by General Bourke's law concerning them, and the farmers looked forward to utter ruin should the number be increased.

The British government, however, preferred to set all the slaves free at once, and would not allow a law to suppress vagrancy to be made, for fear that innocent people might suffer from it. On the 1st of December 1834 every slave in the colony became an apprentice for four years to his former master, and at the end of that period was at liberty to do as he pleased. A sum of money amounting to one and a quarter million pounds was granted by the parliament to compensate the owners, but it amounted to only about one-third of their losses, and a great many families were reduced to extreme poverty by the measure.

Yet, although the suffering caused to the masters was

very great, only a few maintained that the bondage of negros was proper in itself. It was not the setting free of the slaves, but the manner in which it was done, that for a long time continued to stir up feelings of resentment.

CHAPTER XXIX.

THE SIXTH WAR WITH THE XOSAS AND ITS CONSEQUENCES.

Outbreak of sixth Kaffir war, 1835. — Just three weeks after the liberation of the slaves the sixth Kaffir war commenced. The Xosas who were living west of the Tyumie river had been stealing so many cattle that the government was obliged to drive them back into their own country, and this irritated them greatly. On one occasion a petty captain was slightly wounded on the colonial side of the boundary, in a quarrel purposely provoked by a party of Xosas to afford a pretext for war. Some thousands of Kaffirs then made a rush into the colony, set fire to the farm houses as far west as the Sunday river, drove off the cattle, and murdered all the men who fell into their hands.

The governor hurried up from Capetown, and as quickly as possible got together an army of burghers, soldiers, and Hottentots, with which he crossed the Keiskama. The Xosas would not meet him in the open field, and it was necessary to drive them out of the forests along the Amatola mountains, which was not an easy task.

When this was done, the army crossed the Kei to recover the cattle taken from the colony, that had been

sent there for shelter by the raiders who drove them off. Hintsa, the chief of the section of the Xosa tribe living in that part of the country, promised to give them up if the governor would make peace, but when pretending to lead some soldiers to the place where the cattle were kept, he suddenly dashed away from them, and was shot dead by a man who followed him and whom he first tried to stab with an assagai. His son Kreli then became chief, and made peace with the governor.

Sir Benjamin D'Urban declared the country as far as the Kei under British rule. The Kaffirs who had commenced the war were located east of the Keiskama, and some Fingos were brought from Kreli's country and settled between that stream and the Fish river. Forts were built in commanding positions among the Xosas, so as to keep them in order, and Colonel Smith, a very able officer, was stationed at a place named King-Williamstown to govern them. To some extent the chiefs were allowed to exercise authority over their followers, but in important matters all were subject to the colonial laws.

The colonists now thought their troubles with the Xosas were at an end. They had lost a great deal of property, and many households were in mourning for relatives killed in the war; but there seemed good reason to hope that under Sir Benjamin D'Urban's system of ruling the black people west of the Kei, such sad events would not again occur. The farmers therefore commenced to rebuild their burnt houses, and resumed their usual employment with as much stock as they could gather together.

Country east of the Fish river abandoned to the Xosas, 1836. — Hardly, however, had farming operations been re-commenced when tidings came from England that the new order of things would not be allowed. Lord Glenelg, who was then Secretary of State, had formed an opinion that the colonists were to blame for the late war, and that the Xosas were an innocent and injured people. He therefore sent out orders that the government of the chiefs was to be restored, and all the forts east of the Fish river, excepting Fort Peddie, were to be abandoned.

Sir Benjamin D'Urban wrote in reply that the colonists had done nothing to provoke the war, but the only result was that he was dismissed, and Sir George Napier was sent from England to succeed him as governor. The Xosa chiefs were allowed to resume authority over all the people on the land east of the Kat and Fish rivers, and the soldiers were withdrawn even from Fort Willshire.

The British settlers were very indignant at such treatment. They sent full accounts of what had happened to the English government and parliament, and pleaded for redress, but received none. There was then no other course for them than to submit.

The beginning of the Great Trek, 1836. — The Dutch-speaking burghers, however, were not satisfied with the state of affairs. They asked themselves the question why they should remain in a country where they were exposed without protection to be plundered by hordes of vagrants, and where they must also be subject to raids by Xosa robbers? There was a vast

region left almost without inhabitants by the wars of Tshaka. Why should they not move into it, and set up a government of their own? There they would be free, and no matter what men with such opinions as Lord Glenelg might say or write, they need not trouble themselves about it.

The women were as eager to get away as their husbands. And so the oxen were inspanned before the great tent-waggons, and many hundreds of farmers with their families and household effects set out to seek new homes elsewhere.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE EMIGRANT FARMERS AND MOSELEKATSE, 1836 TO 1837.

The occupation of the Orange Free State. — The waggons moved slowly onward, so that the herds of horned cattle and flocks of sheep and goats that went with them might not get tired.

The Emigrants passed over the first and second steps upward from the coast of the Indian ocean, and left behind them the grass-covered country with its many streamlets, and dark evergreen forests in the kloofs, and patches of trees and bushes scattered in every direction.

Then they reached the plain of the Karoo, treeless, almost waterless, and scantily covered with low shrubs and bushes, but with air so pure that it is a joy to breathe it, and skies so blue and stars so bright that it is a cold heart indeed that does not thank God for making things so beautiful to look at.

The Karoo also was left behind, and the steep front of the vast interior basin was before them. With twenty or thirty oxen to each waggon they climbed it, and then went down the long gentle descent to the Orange river. They passed by hills which looked as if they had been carved out and set down upon the plain, and here and there they saw heaps of great rocks like ruins of

walls built by giants. Grass now took the place of the stunted karoobush, so they were less anxious to press onward.

Some of them reached the Orange river when the water was low, and they could cross without danger. Others found it in flood, for rains had been falling at its sources in the Drakensberg and Maluti ranges, and they were often obliged to wait on its southern bank for weeks together.

The scenery varied little as they passed through the southern part of the territory that is now the Orange Free State, and then some went forward to the Vaal river, and others turned their faces towards Natal.

Louis Triegard. — The first party, whose leader's name was Triegard, pressed on to the Zoutpansberg. There it divided into two sections, one of which was cut off by a Bantu tribe, and all but one little boy and a girl were murdered. These two children were rescued many years later, after they had grown up. The other section tried to open a road to Delagoa Bay, but many perished of fever, and those who remained alive were afterwards brought by sea to Natal.

Hendrik Potgieter. — The second party of emigrants was under a leader named Hendrik Potgieter. They bought a large tract of land in the northern part of the present Orange Free State from a chief whose father once owned that country, but who was reduced by the wars to be a very petty captain. There some of them remained, while others crossed the Vaal river and examined the land along its northern bank.

No inhabitants were found, and no danger was feared except from the lions, which were very numerous. But one day some families were surprised by a band of Moselekatse's warriors, who murdered nearly all of them.

As soon as this became known, the whole of Potgieter's party moved to a hill south of the Vaal river, where they formed a lager by drawing up their waggons in a circle and fastening thorn trees between the wheels. They had hardly time to do this, when Moselekatse's army attacked them, but they succeeded in beating it back with heavy loss. When the army withdrew, however, it took all their cattle except a few horses that were in the lager. The hill has ever since been known as Vechtkop. Twenty emigrants had now been killed, besides twenty-six of their coloured servants, and three of their children were captives.

Gerrit Maritz. — As the third party, under Gerrit Maritz, arrived just at this time, a band of horsemen was soon ready, and proceeded to the nearest of Moselekatse's kraals, which was not far from the present village of Zeerust. They attacked the kraal, and shot many of the warriors belonging to it, until those who were unhurt ran away, when the farmers recovered some of their cattle.

Pieter Retief. — After this an able man, named Pieter Retief, was chosen to be leader of all the emigrants. He sent a message to Moselekatse, offering peace on condition that all which had been taken from the farmers should be restored. The chief would not perform this condition, and therefore another commando

went against him. It was in two divisions, under Potgieter and Pieter Uys. The commando found Moselekatse in the valley of the Mariqua, and in three days' fighting inflicted such severe losses upon him that he and all his people fled away to the north of the Limpopo river, where they settled in the territory now called Matabeleland.

Then the emigrants declared that the whole territory which he had laid waste was theirs. For a time they fixed the seat of their government at a place named Winburg on account of their recent victories, and in front of them as far north as the Limpopo was an open country ready for settlement.

CHAPTER XXXI.

THE EMIGRANT FARMERS AND DINGAN, 1838 TO 1840.

The settlement in Natal. — The other section of the Emigrants sought a home on the eastern side of the Drakensberg in the territory of Natal. In all the world there is no fairer land to look upon, nor one more suitable for Europeans to thrive in. The grass on its pastures waves as in a meadow, there is plenty of wood and water and rich soil for the plough, and the climate is healthy though the heat in summer is often great. When the pioneers of the emigrants first looked upon it, it was a vast waste, almost without people, for the Zulu wars had swept it bare.

Dingan, who lived north of the Tugela, claimed it by right of Tshaka's conquests, and therefore Pieter Retief, the head of the emigrant farmers, went to him to ask if he would dispose of it. He said Retief might have the country on condition of first recovering a large herd of cattle that a Mantati chief had stolen from him. These terms were accepted, and the emigrants were fortunate enough to get the cattle without much trouble.

Retief then went down the steep side of the Drakensberg again, and with him went herds of horned cattle, and troops of horses, and flocks of sheep and goats, with several hundred waggons, conveying families of emigrants to the beautiful land of Natal. On the banks

of the Bluekrans and Bushman's rivers, which flow northward to the Tugela, they halted, and spread themselves over the pastures without any thought of danger, while their leader and sixty-six white men and boys with about thirty Hottentots took the recovered herd of cattle to Dingan.

Massacre of the Emigrants, 1838. — The Zulu chief received Retief and his party with a show of friendship, and made his mark upon a piece of paper giving them the whole country between the Tugela and Umzimvubu rivers; but his heart was full of treachery towards them. When they were ready to return to their friends, and went to bid him farewell, without the slightest warning he bade his warriors put them to death. They were all murdered in cold blood, and then without any delay an army was sent to destroy their families and friends in Natal.

Defeat of a Zulu army. — It was not clear dawn on the eleventh morning after Retief's death when the savage warriors fell upon the emigrants nearest the Tugela. They murdered men, women, and children alike, and the whole body would have met this fate if a young lad had not sprung upon an unsaddled horse and ridden away to give notice to the families farther on. These in great haste drew up their waggons in lagers, so that they could defend themselves when they were attacked, and though great numbers of Zulus were killed in the attempt to force a way into them, not one of the lagers was taken.

As night fell, the savage army withdrew, driving nearly

all the emigrants' cattle away. They left on the ground the bodies of forty-five white men, fifty-six white women, one hundred and eighty-five white children, and about two hundred and fifty coloured servants, whom they had murdered. The village of Weenen, that is Weeping, which was founded two years afterwards (1840), was so called because of this dreadful event, which took place in its neighbourhood.

As soon as the sad tidings of the massacres reached Winburg, the men who were on that side of the Drakensberg set out to the assistance of their friends in Natal. Two armies were got ready to attack Dingan. One was composed of blacks, and was led by a few Englishmen who were living at the port, at a place which they had named Durban in honour of the governor of the Cape Colony. This army marched to the Tugela, and in a battle on its northern bank was defeated, when more than two-thirds of those composing it lost their lives.

The other consisted of farmers, and was in two divisions, under Hendrik Potgieter and Pieter Uys. It was drawn into an ambush, but cut its way through the enemy with the loss of ten lives. One of those who fell was the commandant Pieter Uys, and another was his gallant son Dirk, a boy only fifteen years of age, who seeing his father on the ground turned back to help him, and was killed at his side.

The emigrants in Natal were now for a long time in sore distress. They dared not move from their lagers, and were in want of both food and clothing.

Destruction of Dingan's power. — After many months of suffering, a very able man, named Andries

Pretorius, joined them, and was at once chosen as their head. He got together a commando, with which he marched against Dingan, and in a battle fought on the 16th of December 1838 the Zulu army was defeated with heavy loss. The day is still observed in parts of South Africa as one of thanksgiving to God for the victory, and is called Dingan's day. After his defeat, the Zulu chief set fire to his principal kraal, and hid himself where the farmers could not find him.

A year later, Panda, a brother of Dingan, rebelled against him, and joined the farmers. Their united forces marched into Zululand, and in a terrible battle between the adherents of the two brothers, Dingan's army was utterly destroyed. He himself fled to the Swazi country, where he was murdered shortly afterwards.

CHAPTER XXXII.

THE REPUBLIC OF NATAL.

Foundation of Maritzburg, 1839. — After the defeat of Dingan, Panda became chief of the Zulus, but he agreed to be subject to the white men. Immense herds of cattle were captured, of which the emigrants took a sufficient number to make good their losses, and Panda kept the remainder.

There was no longer an enemy close by to molest them, so the farmers broke up their lagers, and began to live again in their usual manner. They called the country the Republic of Natal. It was governed by a council, which met in session every three months at a town which they built and called Pieter-Maritzburg, in honour of Pieter Retief and Gerrit Maritz. The first part of the name is now seldom used, because the word was too long, and there is another place in South Africa called Pieter Retief.

On the western side of the Drakensberg the emigrants had also a council, but when important matters were to be settled its members went to Maritzburg, and there both sat as one. Commandants were appointed to enforce the laws, and landdrosts and heemraden to hold courts of justice. Still the government of the emigrants was very weak, and the people formed parties, which frequently quarrelled with each other.

Negotiations with the British government. — When matters were fairly settled after the defeat of Dingan, the council at Maritzburg wrote to the governor of the Cape Colony, asking that they might be acknowledged by the queen of England as a free and independent people, and that a treaty of friendship might be made with them.

The British government, however, refused to term them anything else than subjects, and tried to devise plans to compel them to return to the Cape Colony. It was feared that a rival port might be opened on the coast, to the damage of British trade. And there was another matter that had even greater weight in the view of the high authorities in England. The elevation of the black races was the leading idea of the time, and it was supposed that the formation of a number of states under coloured rulers, guided by missionaries and protected by Great Britain, would tend to that object.

This scheme was in the mind of the governor and his advisers when tidings reached him that the farmers of Natal had attacked and punished a band of marauders who had stolen some cattle from them, and who were living near the Umzimvubu river. Such conduct, he thought, would interfere with his plans, and might force the Xosas down upon the colony. Without any delay, therefore, he sent a body of soldiers to protect the Bantu in that part of the country, and shortly afterwards made known his intention to occupy the seaport town of Durban with troops.

Despatch of British troops to Natal, 1842. — A little British army was then sent over land, and without

encountering any resistance formed a camp on the shore of Port Natal. The farmers came together in a village at the head of the inlet, and declared that they would not submit to be British subjects. Messages passed between the two parties to no purpose. At length Captain Smith, who commanded the English soldiers, marched against his opponents one night in order to disperse them, but was driven back with a loss of more than one-third of his men.

Both before and after this event, Commandant Pretorius, who was the leader of the farmers, desired Captain Smith to leave the country, but that officer would not. He fortified his camp, to which the emigrants laid siege, and though he was short of food, he held out for twenty-six days, when help reached him.

At the beginning of the siege a young man named Richard King set out on horseback for Grahamstown with a report of what had occurred, and as soon as the governor came to know it, troops were sent by sea to Captain Smith's relief. The farmers tried to oppose their landing, but without effect. They joined the soldiers in the camp, and as the English army thus became too strong to be resisted, the farmers gave up the contest.

Natal then became a British possession in 1842. A few of the emigrants remained there, but most of them packed their household goods in their waggons again, and went away over the Drakensberg with their flocks and herds to seek a resting place somewhere else.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

CREATION OF GRIQUA, BASUTO, AND PONDO TREATY STATES.

Distribution of Europeans and other races in South Africa. — After the conquest of Natal by the British troops, several thousand emigrants were scattered over the vast region between the Orange and Limpopo rivers, the Kalahari desert, and the Drakensberg. In some places they were thickly settled, in others one might travel for days without meeting any of them. They were numerous along both banks of the Caledon river below Jammerberg drift, and on the land between the Riet and Modder rivers. In these places there were no people whose fathers had been there before them: all were new comers. The Bushmen had been killed or driven away by the Griquas, and the few Koranas, who had in earlier days wandered with their herds on the banks of the Modder and the Riet, had gone to other pastures.

Along the lower Caledon there were some black people on mission stations, but they were remnants of broken tribes collected by the missionaries in distant parts and brought there for the sake of safety. Farther westward were the Griquas, a people composed of nearly every variety of the human species mixed with Hottentot blood, most of whom had moved out of the Cape Colony only a few years before.

The emigrant farmers thought they had as much right as any one else to be there. When they found a tract of land quite waste, they simply took possession of it, but they bought or leased a good many places from Griquas who had rights by virtue of earlier selection.

Creation of Griqua state, 1843. — When a white man acquired land in this way from a Griqua, he did not become a subject of the Griqua captain — whose name was Adam Kok, — and thus the captain saw his power rapidly waning. He made a complaint to the governor of the Cape Colony, who had then in his mind the plan of the big black states, which met with great favour in England.

Adam Kok was informed that he would be taken into alliance with Great Britain, and that a treaty would be made with him to secure his authority over the whole territory in which his people were scattered. He had not two thousand followers of all ages and both sexes, and of these nearly all were living close to the mission station of Philippolis, but there were a few as far north as the Modder river. There were more white people than Griquas in the territory at the time.

In pursuance of the governor's promise, a treaty was made with Adam Kok, by which from being a petty captain he became in the eyes of the British authorities a sovereign chief, entitled as an ally to aid and protection.

Creation of Basuto state, 1843. — At the same time a treaty was made with Moshesh, the chief of the

Basuto, a tribe composed of the remnants of a great many others that had been broken in the Zulu wars. Moshesh lived on Thaba Bosigo, a mountain which has often been besieged, but which has never yet been taken by a foe. He was a very able ruler, and his followers were rapidly increasing in number, though they were not yet what could be termed a powerful tribe.

On the border of the land occupied by the Basuto several bodies of people were living, who had been brought there by missionaries, and who did not acknowledge Moshesh as their chief. Among these the principal were the Barolong at Thaba Ntshu, who were governed by a captain named Moroko.

In the treaty with Moshesh, he was made the sovereign of the country in which his own followers lived, also of a vast tract of land partly waste and partly inhabited by blacks who were not his subjects, and further of the territory along the lower Caledon occupied by the emigrant farmers and the people of some mission stations. His land was admitted to join that assigned to Adam Kok, and thus an attempt was made to create two large black states on the border of the Cape Colony.

Creation of Pondo state, 1844. — A little later the same plan was followed with regard to the Pondo chief Faku, who had the whole country between the Drakensberg and the sea, from the Umtata river to the Umzimkulu, assigned to him.

Failure of the arrangement. — The project failed utterly. The captains who were made subject to the sovereign chiefs refused to submit, and declared they

would rather fight to the death. Far and wide the country was involved in disputes and war. The emigrant farmers set Adam Kok at defiance, and when he attempted to enforce authority over them, they took up arms.

Matters were in this state when Sir Peregrine Maitland succeeded Sir George Napier as governor of the Cape Colony. He sent a body of troops to help Adam Kok, and in a skirmish at Zwart Kopjes the farmers were defeated and their camp was taken. Some then moved northward to Winburg, others went beyond the Vaal river, and those that remained between the Modder and Orange rivers submitted to the governor, asking only that they should not be driven from their ground.

With all the troubles and wars many were now so poor that they would even have wanted food if it had not been for the springbucks and other antelopes that swarmed around them.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

EVENTS NORTH OF THE ORANGE RIVER FROM 1845 TO 1850.

Division of the Griqua treaty state, 1845. — Sir Peregrine Maitland tried to settle the disputes in the country south of the Modder river by dividing the ground between its white and its coloured occupants. He saw that even if big black states could be created, they would not tend to the improvement of the coloured people, and he saw also that the removal of the emigrant farmers would cause very great suffering. It was not in his power to destroy the treaties that Sir George Napier had made with Adam Kok and Moshesh, but he tried to alter them to suit his purpose.

He arranged with Adam Kok that white people should live between the Modder and Riet rivers, and Griquas between the Riet and Orange. The fiction that Kok was sovereign of the whole country was maintained, but he was induced to give power to an English officer to govern the white people, on condition that he should receive half the taxes.

Major Warden, who was the officer appointed, selected a suitable place for his residence and as a station for a few soldiers left by the governor to support him. The place had been a farm, on which an emigrant named Brits had lived, but as Adam Kok was called the sovereign, a grant was obtained from him. The farm

was called Bloemfontein, and the residency retained that name.

Difficulties with Moshesh. — The governor was unable to make an arrangement like this with Moshesh, because that chief would only allow a very small portion of the country that was called his to be kept for the use of the emigrant farmers. They were in possession of five or six times as much ground as he was willing to allot to them, and had acquired it without doing him the slightest wrong. The governor, who was an honest and godfearing man, shrank from depriving them of what was theirs as much as Thaba Bosigo was Moshesh's, except for the Napier treaty.

Major Warden therefore could not maintain order in any part of what English officials were obliged to call the Basuto country. Moshesh claimed to be the sovereign of every one in it, while the emigrant farmers, the Barolong under Moroko, and numerous smaller parties of coloured people would have nothing to do with him. They were ready for a general war when the major, after much persuasion, induced the chiefs to put their marks to an agreement that the governor of the Cape Colony should be the judge of their various claims, and that they would keep peace with each other until he should give his award.

The governor had no time then to attend to the matter, and the question was therefore put off for a season; but open war was prevented, though the state of things was not exactly that of peace.

Meantime from the Modder river to the Limpopo the emigrant farmers were left entirely to themselves.

Foundation of Potchefstroom, 1839. — Commandant Potgieter's party, who had founded Winburg, left that village, and built another on the bank of the Mooi — that is Beautiful river, — which they named Potchefstroom: *Pot* being the first syllable of the commandant's name, *chef* signifying his position as their chief, and *stroom* referring to the river.

Foundation of Lydenburg, 1846. — They remained in that neighbourhood for several years, and then, feeling the need of a seaport, moved north-eastward to be near Delagoa Bay. At a place which they named Ohrigstad, after a gentleman in Amsterdam, they suffered very severely from fever, and many died. Some of the survivors then moved to a more healthy site at no great distance, where they founded the village of Lydenburg — the town of suffering, — so called on account of what they had recently endured.

The others, with Commandant Potgieter himself, went north to the Zoutpansberg, and settled there. For some years they did not build a village, but lived contentedly upon farms.

Foundation of Rustenburg, 1850. — When the British troops took Natal, many of those who moved from that country crossed the Vaal river, and selected farms for themselves on both sides of a range of mountains that they named after Magali, a petty Betshuana captain whom they found there. As they were not molested by any one, and were very well satisfied with the climate and the soil, after a few years some of them selected a very beautiful site for a village, which they

named Rustenburg, to signify that they had at last reached a place where they could rest.

The form of government under which they lived was the same as that of the Republic of Natal when it was in existence. But it was even weaker, if that was possible, for party feeling was still very strong, and there was no man whom all would own as a leader. Still there was very little crime, for the emigrants were under the strictest moral restraint.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE CAPE COLONY FROM 1836 TO 1847.

Troubles with the Xosas. — We must now return to the Cape Colony, which we left some time ago, just after the close of the sixth Kaffir war. The land east of the Fish and Kat rivers was then given back to the Xosas, and treaties were made with all the captains, just as if they were kings of civilised countries. They promised not to allow their followers to steal cattle from the farmers in the colony, but they did not keep their word. As they could not understand why they were treated with such favour, they thought it must be because the rulers of the white people were afraid of them, and so they laid aside all respect for the colonial government.

During the next ten years over a hundred people were murdered by Xosas on the eastern border, and the country as far west as the Sunday river was harried and wasted almost as in a time of war. The missionaries were unable to make progress in their work. Many of them asserted indeed that the Xosas were growing more depraved than before, because some vile customs that had once been set aside were now resumed. And all this evil was the result of mistaken opinions formed by Lord Glenelg and other people in England, who really meant well, but who knew nothing whatever of barbarians and their way of thinking and acting.

Introduction of present school system, 1839. — Still this period was one of great improvement in all parts of the colony except the Xosa border. Churches were built at many places which are now thriving villages, such as Piketberg, Riversdale, Bredasdorp, Wellington, Prince Albert, Richmond, Victoria West, and Mossel Bay. Schools also greatly increased in number, and the present system of education — though not as perfect as now — was introduced.

Increased prosperity of the colony. — Magistrates' courts, too, were much more thickly scattered over the country, so that it became easier to enforce the laws and obtain justice.

This is the period when sheep's wool rose to be the most important article of export. In early times wine was always highest in value in the list of produce sent to other lands, but the scarcity of labour after the slaves were made free caused that industry to decline rapidly. At the same time it was proved that wool would pay, and as shepherds could be obtained more easily than workers in the ground, breeding merino sheep became a common pursuit.

Immigrants from Europe were encouraged to settle in South Africa, and those who could work with their hands were provided with free passages. Thus a few thousand most useful people were brought out, who were of great benefit to the colony.

Opening of mountain passes by convict labour, 1843. — A system of employing convicts to open up the mountain passes of the country was introduced, and

by this means good roads were made in places where before it was barely possible to get waggons along.

Seventh Kaffir war, 1846 and 1847. — After suffering for ten years from outrages by the Xosas, the governor found himself compelled to chastise the faithless tribe. A Kaffir who was detected at Fort Beaufort in an act of theft was being forwarded from that place to Grahamstown with some other prisoners to be tried, when a band of his friends crossed the border, attacked the escort, and rescued him. They murdered a Hottentot to whom he was handcuffed, and freed him by cutting off the dead man's hand. After this they returned to their own country, and when the governor demanded of the chief Sandile that the guilty men should be given up for trial, he met with a refusal.

A military force was then sent to occupy Sandile's kraal, but a great disaster befell it. The Kaffirs attacked the train of waggons conveying the provisions and baggage, and succeeded in getting possession of it, so that the troops were obliged to retreat.

At once a great horde of Xosas rushed into the colony, and set fire to the houses and drove off the cattle nearly as far west as Uitenhage and Port Elizabeth. The farmers luckily had time to escape to the villages and fortified posts, but here and there one was overtaken and murdered.

The burghers of the whole colony were called to arms, and soldiers came from England, but for nearly two years the Kaffirs held out, and when at last peace was made, they were far from being humbled or thoroughly beaten. This, the seventh Kaffir war, cost a great deal

of money and a great deal of blood. The Fingos fought bravely on the colonial side, but the whole Xosa tribe and a great part of the Tembu tribe were united against the white people.

Sir Peregrine Maitland was governor when the war commenced, but after a time he was succeeded by Sir Henry Pottinger, who was also high commissioner, and had power to deal with matters in the territories beyond the border. Sir Henry Pottinger did not remain long here, but left just as the war drew to a close.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

BRITISH KAFFRARIA AND THE ORANGE RIVER SOVEREIGNTY.

Enlargement of the Colony by Sir Harry Smith, 1847. — Sir Harry Smith succeeded Sir Henry Pottinger as governor of the Cape Colony and high commissioner for South Africa. In earlier years he had lived a long time in the country, and had been a firm supporter of Sir Benjamin D'Urban, so that the burghers welcomed him as an old friend. One of his first acts was to extend the Cape Colony on the north to the Orange river from the junction of the Kraai to the Atlantic ocean, and on the east to the Tyumie and the Keiskama.

Creation of British Kaffraria, 1847. — He also declared the land between the new eastern boundary and the river Kei a British possession, but it was kept entirely for the use of the Xosas. In it they were governed by European officers, and everything possible was done to make them prosperous and happy. The district was named British Kaffraria. The Xosas professed to be satisfied with this arrangement, and to all appearance settled down quietly; but in reality they regarded as a mere truce what the white people thought was peace, and were intent only on collecting a supply of food in order to be able to renew the war.

Proclamation of British sovereignty over the territory between the Orange and Vaal rivers, 1848. — The attempt to create powerful Griqua and Basuto states had caused nothing but strife, so Sir Harry Smith resolved to do away with them. He induced Adam Kok and Moshesh to put their marks to documents which did away with the Napier and Maitland treaties, and he then proclaimed the sovereignty of the queen of England over the territory between the Vaal and Orange rivers eastward to the Drakensberg.

Battle of Boomplaats, 1848. — The emigrant farmers who lived south of the Modder river made no objection, but those in the other part of the territory declared that they would not become British subjects. Having chosen Mr. Andries Pretorius as their leader, they proceeded to Bloemfontein, and obliged Major Warden and all the British officials and soldiers that were there to leave the country.

Sir Harry Smith then marched against them with a strong force of soldiers and Adam Kok's Griquas. The farmers made a stand at a place called Boomplaats, but after a sharp action they were defeated, and all who were resolved not to submit to British rule fled across the Vaal river.

Attempt of Sir Harry Smith to settle matters peaceably. — Major Warden now went back to conduct the government under the high commissioner, and magistrates were stationed at Bloemfontein, at Winburg, and at the new villages of Smithfield and Harrismith. The places of those farmers who went across

the Vaal river were occupied by people who moved in from the Cape Colony, among whom were a good many Englishmen.

Sir Harry Smith appointed a commission to arrange boundaries between the different sections of the inhabitants, and submit them for his approval. But it was soon found that a peaceable settlement was not possible, for Moshesh wanted to be master of the other chiefs living along the Caledon, and they would not submit to him.

By the high commissioner's order, locations were marked off so that each of the contending parties should keep the ground it was actually occupying. Moshesh would not abide by this decision, and open war broke out. Major Warden took the field with all the men he could assemble to support his authority, but was defeated by a Basuto army, and found that without a very strong military force order could not be maintained.

The high commissioner was unable to send any soldiers to support him, because the Xosas and Tembus were at war with the Cape Colony again, and thus Moshesh was able to do as he chose. He drove away some of his black opponents and took their land, and his people pillaged those farmers who adhered to the English government.

Independence of the Transvaal acknowledged, 1852. — There were still some farmers in the territory who were unfriendly towards Great Britain, though they were not so hostile as to leave their ground after the battle of Boomplaats. Seeing the government helpless

either to protect or to punish them, they now made peace with Moshesh on their own account, they engaging not to assist in arms against him, and he promising to prevent his people from plundering or molesting them.

To prevent the union of this party with the emigrants north of the Vaal, which would have been fatal to the queen's sovereignty south of that river, the latter were acknowledged by the British authorities to be a free and independent people, and a treaty of friendship was entered into with them. Thus after their long wandering and much suffering, the object they had so earnestly desired was gained, not by their own exertions, but by the attitude of Moshesh. Shortly after this date the country which they occupied became known as the South African Republic, and henceforth its history is separate from that of the Cape Colony and Natal.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE ANTI-CONVICT AGITATION AND THE EIGHTH WAR WITH THE XOSAS.

Arrival of convicts in South Africa, 1848. — While Sir Harry Smith was governor of the Cape Colony an attempt was made by the authorities in England to send out to this country people convicted of crime and sentenced to banishment. In South Africa the project was regarded with greater horror than if it had been proposed to introduce some dreadful disease. From all parts of the country petitions and protests against the measure were forwarded to the government, and when the ship *Neptune* with convicts on board arrived in Simon's Bay, the people of the Cape peninsula — with few exceptions — bound themselves together under a pledge not to supply anything whatever to persons who had dealings with her, nor to have any intercourse with them.

This pledge was so strictly observed that not a particle of food could be obtained for the convicts, and it was with much difficulty that supplies for the soldiers were procured. Any one who tried to assist the government did so on peril of being regarded and treated as an enemy. Sir Harry Smith, like the colonists, did not wish this country to become a convict settlement, but he was obliged to carry out the orders which he received

from England, and so he could not send the ship away, though the people of Capetown were very anxious that he should.

Five months the *Neptune* lay at anchor in Simon's Bay. Her crew and the convicts on board could get nothing to eat but provisions out of ships-of-war. All this time the greatest excitement prevailed in the colony, and great caution had to be used by the government to prevent a collision with the people. At length, to the joy of every one, instructions were received from England that the convicts should proceed to Tasmania, as the secretary of state had changed his mind, owing to the numerous petitions of the colonists.

The Eighth Kaffir war, 1850 to 1853. — The Xosas remained quiet for three years after their settlement under English officers in British Kaffraria. During all this time they were making ready for war again, though they were so cautious that their designs were not at first suspected. But when a man named Umlanjeni began to issue charms which he said would secure those who wore them from being hurt by bullets, and the warriors went to him in crowds to get them, the frontier colonists knew what was coming.

Sir Harry Smith went to King-Williamstown, and called a meeting of all the chiefs, but Sandile would not attend. Still, as the Kaffirs had no complaints of any kind to make, and seemed to be prosperous and happy, the governor thought they could not have war in their minds. He returned to Capetown, but tidings followed him that Sandile would certainly cause trouble.

With all the soldiers that could be mustered Sir Harry

was soon back in King-Williamstown, and as Sandile was known to be in one of the forests at the sources of the Keiskama, a body of troops was sent to arrest him. On the way, the troops were attacked in the Boomah pass by thousands of Kaffirs, and fought their way through with a loss of twenty-three men killed and as many wounded. A few hours later, in another part of the country, a patrol of fifteen soldiers was met by Sandile's people, and all were put to death.

On the following morning — Christmas 1850 — three villages named Auckland, Woburn, and Juanasburg, on the colonial side of the Tyumie river, were surprised by Kaffirs, when forty-six men were murdered in cold blood, and the houses were burned to the ground.

In this manner the eighth Kaffir war commenced, and it was the longest and most costly in blood and treasure that the Cape Colony has ever been engaged in against coloured people. The frontier districts were ravaged once more, and the burghers in all parts of the country were obliged to leave their homes and take up arms. The Xosas were joined by the greater number of the Tembus and by several hundreds of Hottentots from the settlement at the Kat river and other places. Even some of the Hottentot soldiers deserted and went over to them.

Wreck of the "Birkenhead," 1852. — A very sad event was the loss of the ship *Birkenhead*, which was sent from England with soldiers to assist in the war. She was proceeding to Algoa Bay, when in the middle of the night she struck on a reef near Danger Point. There was barely time to put the women and children

in the boats when the ship went to pieces, and four hundred and thirty-seven men were drowned.

There had never been so many soldiers in the colony before as arrived during this war. For more than two years they and the burghers were employed driving the Kaffirs out of their forest strongholds, but at last the chiefs were obliged to beg for peace.

Sir George Cathcart had in the mean time succeeded Sir Harry Smith as governor. He located the subdued Tembus in the district that is now called Glen Grey, and gave much of the remainder of the land they had occupied for the last quarter of a century to colonists to be held under military tenure. The loyal Fingos received the best of the land along the foot of the Amatola mountains and some extensive tracts forfeited by the Tembus. To the Xosas was left the district from the Bashee to the Kei and all the open ground between the Kei and the Keiskama.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

EVENTS NORTH OF THE ORANGE FROM 1852 TO 1854.

Defeat of Sir George Cathcart by Moshesh, 1852. — When the war with the Xosas and Tembus was nearly ended, and nothing remained to be done but to follow a few fugitive chiefs, Sir George Cathcart marched with a strong army to punish Moshesh and restore British rule in the territory between the Vaal and Orange rivers. All the English officials were still in that country, but their authority was ignored by most of the black people and a good many of the whites.

The army advanced upon Thaba Bosigo, but was met by the whole Basuto force at the Berea, and was obliged to retreat after a battle in which thirty-seven soldiers were killed and fifteen were wounded. Sir George Cathcart was like a man who thoughtlessly puts his hand into a hornet's nest and gets stung. He had not imagined that Moshesh was so strong, and he was dismayed at finding another big war in front of him.

The Basuto chief on his part was just as anxious to get out of the difficulty, for he saw clearly that he could gain nothing, but might lose much, by contending with a British army. So he caused a very clever letter to be sent to Sir George Cathcart, asking for peace.

The British commander was delighted with the way thus opened for him to escape from the unpleasant

position in which he found himself. He agreed at once to Moshesh's offer, and marched out of the country as fast as he could.

Independence of the Orange Free State recognised, 1854. — After this a special commissioner, named Sir George Clerk, was sent from England to withdraw the government of the queen from the territory. The white inhabitants who had adhered to the British authorities were not willing that this should be done, unless some check was first put upon Moshesh's power, because they knew that he would not let them remain long in peace. But their protests were of no avail, and the government was handed over by the special commissioner to a party of delegates elected by the people, with whom a treaty was made, in which they were declared to be free and independent. The country then took the name of the Orange Free State.

Different states in South Africa. — From that time onward there have been several different governments by civilised people in South Africa, and we shall take notice of them in the following order:

1. The Cape Colony, comprising in 1854 all the land between the Orange river on the north, the Indian ocean on the south, the Atlantic ocean on the west, and British Kaffraria and the rivers Indwe and Tees on the east.

2. British Kaffraria, comprising the territory between the rivers Klipplaats, Tyumie, and Keiskama on the west, the river Kei from the junction of the Klipplaats to the sea on the north-east, and the Indian ocean on the south-east.

3. Natal, comprising the territory between the Buffalo and Tugela rivers on the north-east, the Umzimkulu river on the south-east, the Kathlamba mountains or Drakensberg on the west, and the Indian ocean on the east.

4. The South African Republic, with undefined boundaries, but in practice extending, roughly speaking, from the Limpopo river on the north to the Vaal river and a line a little above Kuruman on the south, the Kalahari desert on the west, and the mountainous country corresponding with the Drakensberg on the east.

5. The Orange Free State, comprising the territory between the Vaal river, the Orange river, and the Drakensberg, except the land marked out as reserves for black people.

6. The Portuguese possessions, extending along the eastern coast from the Zambesi river to Delagoa Bay.

It will be remembered that the Cape Colony when first discovered at the close of the fifteenth century was in possession of Hottentots and Bushmen, that white people first settled in it in 1652, and that its boundaries were gradually enlarged.

British Kaffraria when first explored in the eighteenth century was partly occupied by Hottentots along the coast, partly by Bushmen in the interior, and partly by Bantu; it was brought under the authority of Queen Victoria in 1847, but no white people except officers of the government, soldiers, missionaries, and traders were yet living there.

Natal when first discovered at the close of the fifteenth century was inhabited partly by Bantu, but chiefly by Bushmen; towards the close of the sixteenth century it was largely occupied by Bantu immigrants

from some place north of the Zambesi; after being nearly depopulated by Tshaka, it was occupied by a few Englishmen in 1824; then the emigrant farmers from the Cape Colony entered it in 1838; and in 1842 it was conquered by a British army.

The South African Republic when Europeans first obtained any information concerning it in the early years of the nineteenth century was occupied chiefly by Bantu, but there were a few Bushmen still scattered over it; it was nearly depopulated by the Mantatis and the Matabele, and had very few inhabitants when it was wrested from Moselekatse by the emigrant farmers in 1837; its independence was acknowledged by Great Britain in 1852.

The Orange Free State at the beginning of the nineteenth century was occupied chiefly by Bushmen, but some recent Bantu immigrants were found in the north-east, and a few Korana Hottentots were living along the streams in the west; white people began to use its pastures in 1819; in 1836 it was occupied by the emigrant farmers; in 1848 the queen's sovereignty was proclaimed over it; and in 1854 its independence was acknowledged by Great Britain.

The territory claimed by Portugal was occupied at the beginning of the sixteenth century by Bantu only; the Portuguese took possession of Sofala in 1505, and afterwards built forts and trading stations at other places; in the middle of the nineteenth century their power was little more than shadowy.

All the remainder of South Africa was still occupied solely by barbarians, and very little was known by Europeans about any part of it.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION IN THE CAPE COLONY.

First Cape Parliament, 1854. — The people of the Cape Colony had for a long time been entreating the English government to allow them to make laws for themselves, and the time at last arrived when this privilege was granted to them.

Shortly after the close of the eighth Kaffir war permission was received from the queen and her advisers for properly qualified persons to elect a parliament, to consist of a legislative council and a house of assembly.

Qualifications for the franchise. — The right to vote for members of both houses was conferred upon every male British subject over twenty-one years of age, who occupied a house or land worth twenty-five pounds, or was in receipt of a salary of twenty-five pounds a year with board and lodging or fifty pounds without. In 1892 this was changed, and it is necessary for a voter to be able to write his name, address, and employment, and to be in receipt of fifty pounds a year as salary or wages, or occupy property worth seventy-five pounds. There is no distinction as regards race, or colour, or religion.

For the purpose of electing members for the legis-

lative council the colony was divided into two provinces, but the inhabitants of much smaller areas elected their own members for the house of assembly. Parliament was to be summoned to meet by the governor, and a period of twelve months was not to elapse between the sessions.

No law could be made without the approval of both houses and the sanction of the governor. The right was reserved to the British government to reject any laws so made within two years of their reaching England, but in practice this right has been very rarely used.

The colonists were much gratified with the liberty that was thus granted to them, and their feelings of loyalty to Great Britain were greatly increased. But the system was not quite perfect, for the power of parliament was limited in one most important respect. The officials of highest rank, who formed the executive council and were therefore the governor's advisers, were still sent out from England, and held their appointments during the pleasure of the secretary of state for the colonies, no matter whether parliament liked them or not.

Introduction of responsible government. — This state of things continued until 1872. Then a change was made, and the ministers — as the high officials are termed — have since been the leaders of the party in parliament that can command the largest number of votes in support of their measures.

This system is termed responsible government. In practice it gives to the men who are chosen by the

people the power of making and altering laws, of levying taxes and controlling the manner of using the public money, and of creating and doing away with offices.

At a later date the colony was divided into nine provinces for the election of members of the legislative council, instead of into only two as at first.

For ten years after the introduction of responsible government the English language only could be used in debate in parliament. This was felt as a grievance by a large number of Dutch-speaking colonists, who wished their language to stand on an equality with the other. In 1882 their wish was gratified, and since that date the members can speak in English or in Dutch as they choose.

The birth of a new nation. — The year 1909 will be ever memorable in South Africa, as the date of the passing of the Act whereby the different colonies are to be made one united whole, and as the birth year of the South African nation.

By the Act of Union the legislative powers formerly held by the various colonies, which are now to be called Provinces, have been surrendered to the new state which has been created, and which has full power to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of South Africa.

The Union Government is to consist of the King, a Senate, and a House of Assembly. The Senate is to consist of eight members nominated by the Governor-General-in-Council, and of eight elected for each province. These members will hold their seats for ten years, and the Senate cannot be dissolved during this period.

The House of Assembly is to consist of 121 members, 51 from the Cape, 36 from the Transvaal, 17 from Natal, and 17 from the Orange Free State. These numbers may however vary with the increase or decrease of population in the respective provinces, but the total number of members may not exceed 150.

For the management of its internal affairs each Province will have a Council, to consist of the same number of members as are elected in the Province for the House of Assembly, except that in any Province where the number of members elected for the House of Assembly is less than 25, the number of the Provincial Council is to be 25. The Council when once elected will sit for a period of three years. All measures passed by the Council are to be termed ordinances, and must receive the consent of the Union Government before they become law.

Both English and Dutch are the official languages of the Union, and will be on a footing of entire equality.

CHAPTER XL.

BRITISH KAFFRARIA.

Introduction of Sir George Grey's measures in regard to the Xosas, 1855. — Sir George Grey succeeded Sir George Cathcart as high commissioner. He found the Xosa captains in British Kaffraria very sullen, because English officers had to a large extent taken their places, and the people very dejected, because the government would not allow men or women to be punished on the charge of practising sorcery. They believed so firmly that diseases and disasters of all kinds were caused by wizards and witches that they thought the government was purposely giving them over to death by refusing to take notice of such matters.

Sir George Grey tried to make both the captains and the people more satisfied with British rule. The authorities in England provided him with a large sum of money to use for the benefit of the Xosas, and he laid it out in the wisest manner. To the captains he gave monthly pensions according to their rank, on condition of their submitting to the European magistrates and helping to keep peace and order.

To destroy the belief in witchcraft he had a large hospital built in King-Williamstown, where sick black people were cared for free of charge and where they were under the treatment of skilled medical men.

With money sent from England he also commenced

to make roads and to build a sea-wall at the mouth of the Buffalo river, purposely to teach the men the value of labour, and he gave aid to mission schools in which the Xosa children were taught any kind of useful work. The excellent industrial branches of the Lovedale institution, on the Tyumie river, had their origin at this time.

Destruction of their cattle and grain by the Xosa tribe, 1856 and 1857. — For a short while every thing seemed to be going on as well as could be wished, but it was only so in appearance. An event, more strange than any that had ever occurred before in South Africa, then took place. A man named Umhlakaza and a girl named Nongkause gave out that they had seen and spoken to the spirits of men long since dead, and many of the Xosas believed them.

Their story was that the spirits instructed them to tell the people to kill and eat all their cattle and destroy their grain, when vast herds more beautiful than any they had ever seen would rise out of the ground, waving fields of millet would spring up, and the brave warriors of their race in times of old would return to life and aid them to drive the white men and the Fingos into the sea.

Kreli, the great chief of the Xosa tribe, lived beyond the Kei, and was not under British rule. He issued an order that the command of the spirits was to be obeyed, and it was carried out not only in his own country, but in British Kaffraria, where the captains still regarded him as their head.

Sir George Grey and the English officials and missionaries feared that the matter would end by the Xosas hurling themselves in an armed mass upon the colony,

and they tried to induce the deluded people to desist from destroying their property, but in vain. The cattle were killed and eaten, and the grain was destroyed. The day came on which the herds were to rise from the ground, the fields of millet to spring into existence, and the dead warriors to return to life, but it passed by without anything unusual happening.

Umhlakaza and Nongkause had made a great mistake. They had not collected the people on the border of the colony, but had left them scattered over the whole country from the Keiskama to the Bashee. Many had been starving for weeks, and now all were in that state.

Dreadful suffering followed. The famished Xosas tried to get into the colony as suppliants for food, but many thousands died on the way. Those who succeeded in reaching villages or farmhouses preserved their lives, and supplies of grain were sent by the government to King-Williamstown, which saved many more. But the power of the tribe was for the time utterly broken, and for many years afterwards the people belonging to it were mostly in service with farmers in the colony.

Union of British Kaffraria with the Cape Colony, 1865. — After this event a large portion of the land in British Kaffraria which was without occupants was given to farmers from other parts of South Africa. About two thousand men, women, and children were also brought out from Germany, and settled there on small plots of ground. Other white people moved in, and at length the British government thought that the territory no longer needed special protection, so it was united to the Cape Colony.

CHAPTER XLI.

THE COLONY OF NATAL.

The population of the colony. — After Natal became a British possession great numbers of black people from Zululand were allowed to enter it, and numerous large locations were given to them to live in. There they settled down under their own chiefs, retaining their own laws and customs, though the government exercises general control over them and requires them to pay hut-tax.

In consequence of this great influx of Bantu, Natal ceased to offer a desirable residence to European settlers except in towns. From four to five thousand English immigrants arrived between the years 1848 and 1851, to whom small plots of ground were assigned, but most of them soon gave up farming for other pursuits, and many afterwards went to Australia. From time to time others have arrived, but never in large numbers. Those who remained have tended to become a trading rather than a farming community, and the position of the port of Durban gave them a prospect of securing a great deal of the commerce of the region beyond the Drakensberg.

Commencement of sugar-planting in Natal, 1852. — Owing to a hot current of water that runs southward

along the coast, the narrow belt of land forming the first step towards the interior is so warm that tropical plants thrive well upon it. Among others the sugar cane was introduced and found to answer.

First importation of labourers from India, 1860. — Then, as the Bantu could not be relied upon for a steady supply of labour, coolies were engaged in India for a certain number of years, and were brought in ships to Natal. It was at first supposed that they would return to their own country when their term of service expired, as they were entitled to free return passages; but instead of doing so, many preferred to remain where they were. At the present day there are over one hundred and three thousand Indians in Natal, three-fourths of whom are not in regular service. In some branches of trade they have quite driven out the white people. In light industries also Europeans cannot compete with them, as they are able to live on a mere trifle.

Natal therefore was never an English colony in the sense of being a place in which a large number of English people could make a home. It was more like India, a country of black people, with a European government, and a few white traders, professional men, missionaries, and sugar-planters. There are some farmers, indeed, but their number is so small that they can do very little to develop the country.

Prosperity of Durban. — The two towns of Maritzburg and Durban, however, are among the most thriving in South Africa. Durban is the gateway through which passes all the commerce not only of Natal itself,

but also of an extensive area west of the Drakensberg. At great expense the entrance to the inner harbour was improved, so that now the largest steamers can cross what was once the bar, and lie at quays as safely as in a dock. The town contains numerous handsome buildings, and is provided with all the appliances of modern comfort and luxury. Railways lead from it over the Drakensberg to join the lines running there north, south, and west, and there are branches in both directions along the coast.

The coal industry of Natal. — Coal of good quality is found in abundance at Dundee, and can be transported by rail to Durban at a cheap rate. This industry is rapidly growing in importance, and many steamships plying in the Indian ocean already put into Natal to take in supplies of coal.

The government of the colony. — The government has undergone many changes since Natal became a British possession. For some years it was dependent upon the Cape Colony, then in 1857 a legislative council, partly elective, was established. This was altered from time to time, until at length, in 1893, full parliamentary government was introduced, with a nominated upper house and an elected house of assembly. The franchise is practically almost limited to the European section of the inhabitants.

CHAPTER XLII.

CONFLICTS WITH BANTU IN NATAL AND ZULULAND.

Rebellion of Langalibalele, 1873. — Since Natal became a British possession there has been but one serious conflict with Bantu inside the border.

In 1848, six years after the country was wrested from the emigrant farmers, a section of the Hlubi tribe fled from Zululand, and had a location assigned to it at the sources of the Bushman's river, near the Drakensberg. It was under a chief named Langalibalele, a word which means "the sun is burning." Years passed away, and the Hlubis became strong in their new home. There was a law that no Bantu in Natal should have guns without their being registered, and as it became known that the Hlubis were possessed of many, a message was sent to the chief that he must account for them.

Langalibalele declined to obey, nor would he go to Maritzburg, though often sent for. An armed force was then assembled to compel him to comply with the law. Upon its approach he retired to the mountains with his cattle, and when a small party of men overtook some of his people in the Bushman's pass, they were surrounded and five were murdered.

The colonists did not know how far the rebellion extended, but every one felt that it must be suppressed at once and at any cost. The government of the Cape

Colony feared a general outbreak, and tendered all possible aid against the disturbers of the peace.

The rebels were followed across the Drakensberg to the Basuto country, where they expected to find allies, but instead were met by a strong body of mounted police from the Cape. Another armed force crossed the mountains farther south, not far from the lofty ridge called the Giant's Castle, and were ready to attack them from that side.

Thus hemmed in, Langalibalele himself was obliged to surrender, but some of his warriors made a desperate stand, and a good deal of blood was shed before the rebellion was over. The chief was banished to a farm on the Cape flats, and many of the leading rebels were punished, in addition to suffering forfeiture of their location. After an exile of twelve years, during which he was provided with every comfort and had the society of his family, Langalibalele was allowed to return to Natal, and died there shortly afterwards.

War with Ketshwayo, 1879. — A much more serious conflict was that between the English power in South Africa and the Zulu tribe.

Upon the death of the chief Panda in 1872 he was succeeded by his son Ketshwayo, who resolved to restore the military system of Tshaka. He was a man of great ability, though he was much less wise than the Basuto chief Moshesh.

As his army became a menace to his neighbours, Sir Bartle Frere, who was then high commissioner, called upon him to disband it and to make amends for some injuries he had caused to persons on British soil. Ketsh-

wayo took no notice of these demands, and therefore in 1879 war was made upon him.

A dreadful disaster followed. An English army of about seven hundred white men and six hundred blacks was surrounded by nearly the whole Zulu force at a place close to the hill named Isandlwana, that is "the little hand," and after a gallant defence all but a few horsemen were killed. This was not the only loss sustained by the white people in the war; but at last the Zulus were conquered, and Ketshwayo was made a prisoner.

The chief was sent to live near Langalibalele on the Cape flats, and Zululand was divided into thirteen little districts, each of which was placed under the rule of a captain, appointed by Sir Garnet Wolseley, the British commander. But this plan of settlement did not answer, and so in 1883 Ketshwayo was allowed to return.

Death of Ketshwayo and accession of Dinizulu, 1884. — War then broke out between him and another chief, and when Ketshwayo died and his son Dinizulu succeeded him, it still continued. Dinizulu got help from some farmers, in return for which he gave them a part of the country, that was afterwards added to the South African Republic.

Continual strife made it necessary for the English government to take possession of what was left of Zululand. It was divided into six districts, and a European magistrate, supported by soldiers and police, was placed in charge of each division. Dinizulu shortly afterwards caused disturbances against the English authority, but he was captured, and with two other chiefs was sent in 1889 to the island of St. Helena, where he remained

until 1898, when he was allowed to return. In 1908 he gave trouble once more, and he has recently been again sentenced to banishment.

Successive enlargements of Natal. — The original colony of Natal was enlarged by the annexation in 1866 of the territory between the Umzimkulu and Umtamvuna rivers, in 1897 by the annexation of Zululand and all the territory onward to the Portuguese border not far south of Delagoa Bay, and in 1903 by the addition of the districts occupied by European farmers below the great inland plateau, that had once formed part of the South African Republic. It now covers an area of 36,173 square miles.

Its population consists of about 97,000 Europeans, 103,000 Indians, 7,000 mixed breeds, and 1,000,000 Bantu.

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC.

Strife with the Bapedi and Bakwena tribes, 1852. — For a long time after the independence of the emigrant farmers north of the Vaal river was acknowledged by Great Britain their government was very feeble. The volksraad, which met sometimes at one village, sometimes at another, was not able to enforce its decisions. There were four parties, each with its own head, and no president above them all.

This condition of things gave the Bantu a chance to increase their strength, of which they took advantage. Great numbers moved into the country, and several chiefs became so powerful that they felt inclined to resist control. From contraband traders they obtained muskets and gunpowder, and when tidings reached them of Moshesh's victories they set the white men's government at defiance.

The Bapedi under the chief Sekwati, the Bakwena under the chief Setsheli, and the Barolong under the chief Montsiwa, were the first to cause trouble, but all of them were worsted in the conflicts which they raised.

The death of Andries Pretorius and Hendrik Potgieter, which occurred at this time, threw the country into still greater confusion, as their successors had much less influence for good.

Appointment of a president. — In 1856 a constitution was adopted by the strongest of the parties, under which there was to be a president to carry out the laws made by the volksraad and to be the head of the state. Mr. Marthinus Wessel Pretorius, eldest son of the late commandant, was chosen to fill that office.

The other sections of the community set up governments of their own, and for a time each of the districts of Zoutpansberg, Lydenburg, and Utrecht was independent. An effort was made by President Pretorius to bring about union with the territory south of the Vaal, and an armed force under his command crossed the river in hope of being joined by a strong party there, but met with no success.

Foundation of Pretoria, 1855 — It soon became evident that a cluster of little hostile states could not long exist, so after much discussion one party after another sank its differences and gave in its adhesion to the constitution. Since 1860 there has been but one government over the emigrant farmers north of the Vaal. The village of Pretoria was then chosen as the capital.

During the next four years, however, there was almost constant strife between the different factions. Each was trying to place its leaders at the head of affairs, and on more than one occasion blood was shed. To people at a distance the South African Republic seemed to be given up to lawlessness and disorder.

Struggle with the people of Magato, 1865 to 1868. — When peace between the various sections of the white people was at last restored, the government was

without money and was obliged to incur heavy debts. In the north the attitude of the chief Magato caused a war of long continuance, which was feebly carried on for want of means, and which ended by the white people losing much ground.

The Keate award, 1871. — On the west Montsiwa and some other chiefs set up a claim to be independent, and asked for British protection. President Pretorius agreed that the matter should be settled by a court of arbitrators, with Mr. Keate, the governor of Natal, as final umpire; but no trouble was taken to put the case of the republic clearly before the court. On the other hand the chiefs had one of the cleverest men in South Africa as their counsel. The result was that Governor Keate decided in their favour, declared them independent, and gave them a boundary which cut off a large tract of land from the republic. This decision has ever since been termed the Keate award.

Shortly after this event the reverend Mr. Burgers became president. He tried to show that the award was not binding, but the British authorities were resolved to maintain it.

Mr. Burgers, who had large ideas in his head, induced the volksraad to send him to Europe, where he tried to borrow money to make a railroad from Pretoria to Delagoa Bay, but obtained only a small portion of the amount needed, and that was spent foolishly.

Second rising of the Bapedi, 1876. — On his return, he found that Sekukuni, the successor of Sekwati as chief of the Bapedi, had risen in arms. A strong

force, with the president in command, marched against the rebel, and though one of the Bapedi strongholds was taken, no further punishment could be inflicted on the tribe. The army of President Burgers retreated in confusion. There was no money in the treasury and no means of raising any, the country was involved in debt, and discord among the burghers was making its appearance again.

Annexation of the South African Republic by Great Britain, 1877. — Then Sir Theophilus Shepstone was sent by the British government to Pretoria with very large powers, and having obtained the consent of some of the people living in the villages, who were mostly Englishmen or Germans, he proclaimed the republic at an end and the country British territory.

CHAPTER XLIV.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC (CONTINUED).

War of independence, 1880 and 1881. — Wretched as was the state of their affairs, the farmers in the South African Republic objected to British rule. They sent Messrs. Kruger and Jorissen to England to ask that Sir Theophilus Shepstone's proclamation should be withdrawn and their liberty be restored, but their request was refused. Again they sent Messrs. Kruger and Joubert, but with no more success than on the first occasion.

After a time Sir Theophilus Shepstone was succeeded as governor by Sir Owen Lanyon, whose haughty manners made him greatly disliked. Sekukuni was subdued by a joint force of British soldiers and Swazis, and was brought a prisoner to Pretoria; but the farmers were no better pleased than before, as Sir Garnet Wolseley, the British commander, announced that they would never cease to be British subjects.

Then a large number of burghers met at the place that is now called Krugersdorp, and resolved to fight and, if necessary, to die for their independence. They elected Messrs. Paul Kruger, Marthinus Pretorius, and Pieter Joubert a committee to carry on the government, and besought God to aid them in the struggle.

On Dingan's day, the 16th of December 1880, the flag of the republic was hoisted at Heidelberg.

At about the same moment the first blood was shed. A party of burghers, under Commandant Cronjé, went to Potchefstroom to have a document printed, and was fired upon by the soldiers there, and one of them was badly wounded. Colonel Winsloe, who was in command of the soldiers, had a camp outside the village, and had also fortified the landdrost's office and three adjoining buildings, in which a garrison was stationed under Major Clarke. Commandant Cronjé returned the fire, and after two days' fighting Major Clarke was obliged to surrender. Colonel Winsloe still held the camp.

The war for independence was thus begun, and disaster after disaster attended the British arms.

Battles of Bronkhorst Spruit, Laing's Nek, and Majuba Hill. — A burgher force under Commandant Frans Joubert was sent to intercept some soldiers who were marching towards Pretoria to strengthen the garrison there. At Bronkhorst Spruit the two parties met. Commandant Joubert gave Colonel Anstruther two minutes to decide whether he would go on or not, his going on to be the signal of battle. Colonel Anstruther replied that he would go on. The burghers then opened fire, and in a few minutes so many soldiers were killed or wounded that the party surrendered.

Sir George Colley marched from Natal with a thousand men to reinforce the troops in the republic, but was met by General Pieter Joubert at Laing's Nek on the 28th of January 1881, and suffered a severe defeat. Eleven days later he was again beaten on the Ingogo heights.

The crowning defeat was yet to come. About a month after the battle of Laing's Nek, Sir George Colley with a reinforced army, climbed on the night of the 26th of February by a back way to the top of Majuba mountain, which commanded General Joubert's camp at Laing's Nek. Next morning when his position was discovered, a party of burgher volunteers under Commandant Smit made their way up the mountain, and drove the troops down with heavy loss. Sir George Colley himself was among the slain. These repeated successes confirmed the belief of the burghers that they were under the special protection of heaven.

The British soldiers who were stationed in the towns of the republic entrenched themselves in the meantime, and though all the forts were besieged, none were surrendered except the camp at Potchefstroom under Colonel Winsloe.

Withdrawal of British rule, 1881. — Sir Evelyn Wood succeeded Sir George Colley as commander of the British forces, but he was directed not to continue the war. Acting under orders from Mr. Gladstone, who was then prime minister of England, he made an agreement with Messrs. Kruger, Joubert, and Pretorius, by which the independence of the republic was restored.

Election of Mr. Paul Kruger as president, 1881. — As soon as it could be arranged, an election took place, when Mr. Paul Kruger was chosen president. At the meeting at Krugersdorp the volksraad resumed its functions as the sole legislative power.

Opening of gold fields 1886. — The discovery of gold in quantities sufficient to pay for extracting it was made soon after the recovery of independence. A large influx of people followed, and very shortly the republic became prosperous and wealthy. Many new villages were built, and the town of Johannesburg sprang into existence almost as by magic. Railways were commenced, telegraphs were constructed, and all over the country improvements of various kinds were made.

The government of the South African Republic. — The country was governed by a president, who was elected for five years, and who was aided by an executive council. Mr. Paul Kruger held the office continuously from 1881 to the overthrow of the state. For military purposes a commandant-general was elected by the burghers every ten years. The legislative power was vested in two chambers, each consisting of twenty-one members, elected for four years. The first volksraad could reject any laws made by the second, and was much the more important of the two.

Difficulties arise from a large influx of aliens. — The rapid development of gold mining brought into the country as many European men as there were farmers, and the two sections of the population were divided not only by language but by ideals, for the old residents were chiefly cattle breeders who resided far apart, while the new immigrants were people accustomed only to the life of towns. Difficulties arose between them, and unfortunately the passions of both parties were roused. In December 1895 this led to an attempt

on the part of the people of Johannesburg to overthrow the government by force of arms, but it ended in complete failure, and a body of men from beyond the border, who tried to ride in quickly and assist them, was defeated in a sharp engagement, in which every one who was not killed was made a prisoner.

Difficulties afterwards arose with the British government, and on the 11th of October 1899 the most deplorable war in which this country has ever been engaged broke out. It ended on the 31st of May 1902, when, after an awful loss of blood and property, an arrangement was come to by which the people of the former republic became British subjects. A short period of crown colony rule succeeded, and then the wise and liberal step was taken by the authorities in England of granting full responsible government, with an elective house of assembly and a nominated legislative council. This in its turn is being followed in the present year 1909 by the union of the Transvaal with the other British colonies to form one grand commonwealth of South Africa, which will be a prominent member of the various communities that compose the British realm.

The area of the Transvaal is 111,196 square miles, and its population consists of about 300,000 Europeans, 950,000 Bantu, and 25,000 mixed breeds and Asiatics.

CHAPTER XLV.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE.

Presidentship of Mr. Josias Hoffman, 1854 to 1855. — No people in the world ever began a career of their own with less prospect of success than the burghers in the country between the Vaal and Orange rivers, when British rule and British military power were withdrawn. Beside them was the great Basuto tribe, under the cleverest chief in South Africa, feeling confidence in its strength, and coveting much of the land Europeans were occupying. All the troubles caused by the attempt in the time of Sir George Napier to create powerful coloured states were left for them to deal with.

Their first task was to choose a form of government. They decided upon a republic, with a volksraad to make laws, and a president to maintain order. The country they named the Orange Free State.

The first president elected was Mr. Josias Hoffman, who was chosen chiefly because he was a friend of Moshesh, He managed to preserve peace, but only by treating the Basuto chief as a superior; and the burghers could not long submit to this.

First war with the Basuto tribe, 1858. — Mr. Jacobus Boshof was the next president. He did all that was possible to preserve order without lowering

the dignity of the state, but he could not prevent war with the Basuto.

What Moshesh wanted was the whole country that was occupied by people of the Bantu race before the wars of Tshaka. What the Free State claimed was the land taken possession of by white people when it was lying waste, and when none of Moshesh's followers had any right of property in it.

The Basuto tried to compel the farmers to move away by plundering their cattle, and the chief, when applied to, would not give redress. Next they took possession by force of some ground belonging to white people, and large armed parties went far beyond the border under pretence of hunting.

Open war then began. A burgher army in two divisions crossed the Caledon, and fought its way to the foot of Thaba Bosigo. There tidings were received that the enemy was laying waste a large part of the state, so the burghers hastened back to defend their families, and when they dispersed, the Basuto had everything their own way.

Moshesh, however, was wise enough to see that if he pushed his advantage too far the South African Republic would join the Free State against him, and therefore he agreed to President Boshof's proposal that Sir George Grey, the governor of the Cape Colony, should arrange terms of peace between them.

The governor consented, and laid down a boundary which gave the Basuto a large piece of ground, though not a fifth of what Moshesh wanted.

Mr. M. W. Pretorius is president, 1860 to 1863. —

Shortly after this, Mr. Boshof resigned, and Mr. Marthinus Wessel Pretorius was elected president. During his term of office the Basuto were constantly giving trouble, and could be restrained neither from stealing cattle nor from encroaching on Free State soil.

Election of Mr. J. H. Brand to the presidentship and second war with the Basuto, 1865. — Upon the retirement of Mr. Pretorius, Advocate Jan Hendrik Brand became president. By his desire Sir Philip Wodehouse, Sir George Grey's successor as governor of the Cape Colony, tried to compose matters between the Free State and Moshesh. After inspecting the border and hearing the case of both parties, the governor decided against the Basuto. Moshesh promised to comply with the decision, and to recall his people who were trespassing on the white men's ground, but he did not keep his word.

Various acts of violence by Basuto captains forced on war. The burghers made such efforts as have seldom been surpassed in any country, and though numerous lives were lost and a great deal of property was destroyed by invasions of their territory, they maintained the conflict until Moshesh asked for peace. He offered to cede a large tract of land, and on that condition terms were made with him.

Third war with the Basuto, 1867 and 1868. — It was the intention of the president and the volksraad to give part of the ceded land to white people and part to Basuto who would consent to be governed by European officers. In this way they thought it would

be possible so to weaken Moshesh that he would not be able to disturb them again.

But they were mistaken. The chief had only asked for peace to get time to gather supplies of food, and as soon as this was done he acted in such a manner that a renewal of the war could not be avoided.

For the final struggle both parties taxed all their power. But one after another Moshesh's mountain fastnesses were carried by storm, and he found his strength rapidly failing. Then he sent to Sir Philip Wodehouse, begging to be received as a British subject, and offering his country to Great Britain. The authorities in England allowed the governor to comply with his request, and when all his strongholds except Thaba Bosigo were lost, Moshesh and the Basuto tribe were taken under British protection.

Basutoland becomes British territory, 1868. — The president and the volksraad objected to this as an unjust and unfriendly act towards them, but as they could not prevent its being carried out, they were obliged to agree to Sir Philip Wodehouse's terms. Basutoland, with its present boundaries, became British territory, and the Free State received all the land west of the Caledon.

CHAPTER XLVI.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE (CONTINUED).

Removal of Adam Kok's Griquas, 1861. — Very little trouble was caused by the Griquas of Adam Kok. They offered their farms for sale, and white people bought the ground, until the captain saw that he would soon have neither land nor followers left. Then he sold his rights to the Free State government, and moved away to the territory south of Natal. Some other petty captains who had been living between the Orange and the Vaal also sold their ground and wandered to other parts of South Africa.

Discovery of diamonds, 1869. — Shortly after the close of the last war with the Basuto, diamonds were found along both banks of the Vaal river and at several places in the western part of the Free State. At once some thousands of people from Europe as well as the Cape Colony and Natal made their way to the diamond fields, and that part of South Africa became a scene of great activity. It had always before been very thinly inhabited, because it was supposed that the land was subject to long droughts.

Great Britain takes possession of the principal diamond mines, 1871. — The principal mines were at

Dutoitspan, Bultfontein, De Beer's, and the place that is now called Kimberley. They were so close together that it was hardly necessary to use a horse to go from one to another. The ground in which they were situated had been more than thirty years in possession of white people: it was British territory from 1848 to 1854, and ever since it had been part of the Free State.

But a Griqua captain named Nicholas Waterboer, who lived with his people far away in and around the village of Griquatown, claimed the land as his, because he said his father had once owned it. He offered to give it to Great Britain, and to become a British subject himself.

President Brand and the volksraad would not admit Waterboer's claim, nor would they consent to have the matter decided by such a court of arbitrators as the high commissioner desired. When the Keate award was given, however, Waterboer's territory was defined in it by the governor of Natal, and it was made to include the chief diamond mines. Thereupon the high commissioner announced that Waterboer was accepted as a British subject, and an armed force was sent to take possession of the mines.

The Free State officials withdrew under protest, and the territory that Waterboer claimed became a British possession separate from the Cape Colony. It was named Griqualand West. After a while an English judge was appointed to decide who were the proper owners of a number of farms in dispute, and after hearing a great deal of evidence he was obliged to pronounce that Waterboer's father never had any right to that part of the country.

The diamond fields are annexed to the Cape Colony, 1880. — Thereupon President Brand went to England, and laid his case before the highest authorities, who offered to give the Free State ninety thousand pounds to waive its claim. The president and volksraad accepted the offer, and thus all unpleasantness was removed.

Griqualand West was then added to the Cape Colony, from which it was only divided before by the Orange river.

One diamond mine, at Jagersfontein, remained to the Free State. So did all the benefit that the others offered as markets for farm produce, for which high prices could be had.

Progress of the Orange Free State. — From the settlement of the dispute concerning the diamond fields the Free State enjoyed constant peace until 1899, and no part of South Africa made greater progress. Railways, roads, bridges, and good public buildings were constructed, and above all the education of the children was carefully attended to.

Death of President Brand and election of Mr. F. W. Reitz. — President Brand was elected again and again until his death in 1888. He was not only a wise but a good man in every sense of the word, and his memory will always be held in esteem. Upon his death, Chief-Justice F. W. Reitz was elected president. He followed the same course as his predecessor, and under his able administration the Free State continued to make great progress in prosperity. His health unfortunately

broke down, so that in 1896 he felt himself obliged to resign, when Judge M. T. Steyn was elected in his stead.

There was a close alliance between the Orange Free State and the South African Republic, so that when one was involved in war the other was also. In consequence the burghers of the Orange Free State fought all through the terrible struggle of 1899—1902, and at its close found themselves British subjects and their country a British possession.

Exactly the same course was followed by the authorities in England towards this new colony as towards the other beyond the Vaal, and both have now been absorbed in the great commonwealth of South Africa.

The area of the Orange River Colony is 55,180 square miles, and its population consists of about 144,000 Europeans, 240,000 Bantu, and 6,000 mixed breeds and Asiatics.

CHAPTER XLVII.

SUCCESSIVE ENLARGEMENTS OF THE CAPE COLONY.

Annexation of British Kaffraria, Griqualand West, and other territory. — At the time of the grant of the constitution the Cape Colony was bounded on the north by the Orange and on the east by the Keiskama, the Tyumie, the Klipplaats, the Zwart Kei, the Klaas Smit's, and the Kraai rivers. Its first enlargement after that date was in 1853, before the first parliament met, when Governor Sir George Cathcart extended the eastern frontier to the Indwe river and a line that embraced a large tract of land to the north-east.

Next in 1865 the crown colony of British Kaffraria was annexed, as has been already related.

In 1873 Griqualand West, in which are the diamond fields north of the Orange river, and which had been proclaimed part of the British dominions in 1871, was erected into a crown colony. As such it had rather a stormy existence, for many of the diamond diggers were turbulent men, and on one occasion it was necessary to send a body of soldiers from Capetown to restore order. Then in 1878 there was a rebellion of the Griquas, Koranas, and Betshuana who occupied the western and northern parts of the province, and ten months passed by before it was entirely suppressed. It had never been intended that the province should remain

a crown colony so long, but these and other circumstances delayed its annexation to the Cape Colony, which did not take place until 1880.

The territory between the Indwe and Kei rivers on one side and Natal on the other was gradually annexed between the years 1879 and 1894.

The land between the Kei and Bashee rivers was left without inhabitants after the Xosas killed their cattle in 1857, and was then occupied by a Cape police force. Afterwards part of it was given to Fingos and part was restored to the Xosas.

The ninth Kaffir war. — In 1877 the ninth Kaffir war broke out, through a quarrel between the Xosas and the Fingos, in which the white people as the protectors of the Fingos became involved. It extended to the branches of the tribe living west of the Kei, and kept the frontier disturbed for more than a year. But the Xosas were unable to do much harm, and were thoroughly beaten, the chief Sandile among others losing his life in the struggle.

Kreli, the principal chief of the tribe, was obliged to retire across the Bashee, and was not permitted to return. The part of the Transkei which he had occupied was then filled by the removal of Fingos and Xosas from the western side of the border. The whole territory was annexed to the Cape Colony, and magistrates were stationed at various places in it.

The country of the Tembus. — The land occupied by the Tembu tribe bordered that just named, the Bashee river running between them. But there had

been a section of this tribe living in the Cape Colony ever since 1827, and for many years it had been located at Glen Grey. The high commissioner Sir Philip Wodehouse offered to these people a large tract of vacant land east of the Indwe river in exchange for Glen Grey, where he wished to place European colonists. The Tembus accepted the offer, and some of them took possession of the new country. Then the others declined to leave Glen Grey, and as it was considered imprudent to drive them out by military force, they kept both territories, but some time afterwards the land east of the Indwe was added to the Cape Colony. In 1880 some of the Tembus living there took up arms against the Cape government, but were defeated, and they were then deprived of a small portion of the land near the Drakensberg, which was allotted to European farmers. The territory between the Bashee and Umtata rivers, which was occupied by the principal section of the Tembu tribe and some other Bantu of less note, was annexed to the Cape Colony at the request of its inhabitants, to prevent their destruction by their enemies. In it is the town of Umtata, which is an important commercial and mission centre.

Griqualand East and Pondoland. — Griqualand East forms part of the country once included in the Pondo treaty state. It takes its name from Adam Kok's Griquas, who moved into it when they left their old home north of the Orange river. Like the Tembu country it came under the government of the Cape Colony at the request of the people living in it, who were always at war with their neighbours. In 1880 some of

them, being tired of restraint, rose in rebellion, but the revolt was soon suppressed. On the high lands near the Drakensberg, which were never occupied by Bantu, and in several other places, some European farmers are living. Kokstad is a town of considerable importance in this district.

Pondoland, which lies along the coast between the Umtata and Umtamvuna rivers, was the last portion of what was formerly called Kaffraria to be annexed. It was in a chronic condition of unrest, which necessitated the interference of the Cape government, so in 1894 it was added to the colony. There was thus no independent Bantu tribe left between the Drakensberg and the sea.

The whole territory is divided into small districts, in each of which a European magistrate administers justice, though in certain cases Bantu law is recognised. Mission schools, aided with public funds, have been scattered broadcast over the territory, and in other ways also strenuous efforts are being made to raise the Bantu in the scale of civilisation.]

CHAPTER XLVIII.

SUCCESSIVE ENLARGEMENTS OF THE CAPE COLONY (CONTINUED).

Ichaboe and Walfish Bay. — In 1874 twelve islets off the coast of Great Namaqualand, the most important of which is named Ichaboe, became dependencies of the Cape Colony. They are frequented by myriads of seabirds and by seals, but have no other human inhabitants than the men stationed on them to collect guano, eggs, etc. In 1884 Walfish Bay with a small tract of land around it, on the coast of Great Namaqualand, also became a dependency of the Cape Colony. It is the best natural harbour on that coast, but the adjoining country, being a waste of sand, contains only a few impoverished Hottentots.

British Betshuanaland. — After the issue of the Keate award, which cut off the Betshuana tribes from the South African Republic, the condition of things along the eastern fringe of the desert was that of constant unrest. At length, in a feud between the Korana chief Taaibosch and the Batlapin chief Mankoroane, each invited the assistance of European volunteers, and offered farms as payment, intending to give ground taken from his adversary. Exactly the same course was followed by the two Barolong chiefs Moshete and Mont-

siwa in their feud with each other. Large bands of unscrupulous adventurers were enrolled without difficulty in the service of each chief, but they soon got tired of marching about, and then they divided two large tracts of land among themselves, which they called the republics of Stellaland and Goshen. Montsiwa and Mankoroane now complained to the British government, and a strong expedition was sent from England under command of Sir Charles Warren to put things right. Upon reaching Stellaland, Sir Charles found that a village named Vryburg was being built, and that the rights of the coloured people, except for hunting purposes, had hardly been disturbed. The settlers were quiet and peaceable, so he did not interfere with them further than to abolish their government. The people of Goshen dispersed before he reached Mafeking, where they had intended to found a village.

In 1885 the whole territory from the border of the South African Republic westward to the twentieth meridian from Greenwich, and from Griqualand West and the Orange river on the south to the Molopo river and Ramathlabama Spruit on the north, was annexed to the British empire and formed into a crown colony under the name of British Betshuanaland. It was divided into five districts, named Gordonia, Kuruman, Taung, Vryburg, and Mafeking, in each of which a magistrate was stationed, with a body of police to maintain order. As much ground as was needed by the coloured people was then set apart for their use, and the remainder was opened for settlement by European farmers.

As the greater portion of the land is without surface water, this extension of dominion was not of so much

importance to Great Britain so far as the value of the territory itself was concerned, as because it opened a road to the interior, and tended to the preservation of order in South Africa.

In 1895 the crown colony of British Betshuanaland was incorporated with the Cape Colony, in accordance with the view that one large and strong country under a single government is preferable to two smaller and weaker states.

Rising of the Batlapin. — In 1896 the Batlapin, the most degraded of all the Bantu tribes, with some other clans living in this territory, rose in rebellion against the government. At first it was not considered possible that they could successfully resist a strong body of police, but the nature of the country was such that military operations were exceedingly difficult in it, and shortly large volunteer forces were engaged in helping to suppress the revolt. For ten months hostilities were carried on, and when at length the rebellion was thoroughly crushed, the wretched insurgents were thrown upon the mercy of the government as paupers without food. This was the only trouble given by the coloured people in the territory, and thereafter the law was as easily enforced in that as in any other part of the Cape Colony.

CHAPTER XLIX.

PROGRESS IN WEALTH OF THE CAPE COLONY.

New industries. — Since the grant of the constitution the Cape Colony has made very rapid advances in prosperity, and many new industries have been introduced.

Copper mines have been opened up in Little Namaqualand, which is a very arid district, but one where ore of great richness is found. A railroad ninety miles in length has been constructed, by which it is brought down from the mines to Port Nolloth on the coast, where it is shipped to England.

Angora goats have been introduced, and mohair has become an important article supplied by South Africa to the rest of the world.

The ostrich has been tamed, and its feathers have greatly swelled the list of exports. In earlier years the feathers of the wild bird were obtained by hunters and exported, but now great numbers of ostriches are hatched in incubators, and kept in paddocks like other domestic animals.

Railways and harbours. — In 1859 a commencement was made with the construction of railways, which now give communication from the principal harbours along the southern and eastern coasts to every

place of note in the interior not only of the Cape Colony, but of all Africa south of the Zambesi.

The harbours, especially Table Bay and East London, have been very greatly improved. In olden times whole fleets were often driven ashore in Table Bay, when the beach would be strewn with corpses and treasure. Now the anchorage is sheltered by an enormous mole, and ships lie in a dock with as much safety as in the Thames or the Maas. The bar at the mouth of the Buffalo river has been removed, and large steamers can now enter and discharge their cargoes on quays, where they are perfectly protected from all winds and seas.

Telegraphs and lighthouses. — The colony has been covered with a network of telegraph wires, as one of the necessities of modern civilisation. Three lines of under-sea cables, one on the east and two on the west coast, connect it so closely with all parts of the world that anything of importance which occurs in Capetown is known on the same day in London, Montreal, and Melbourne.

Many lighthouses have been erected along the coast, which has in consequence become far less dangerous than in olden times.

Every week several magnificent steamships, inferior only in size to the largest that cross the Northern Atlantic, and not inferior even to these in provision for the comfort of travellers, leave the ports of the colony for different parts of the world, those carrying the mails to England making the passage of six thousand miles from Table Bay to Southampton in less than sixteen days.

Irrigation and fisheries. — Large sections of the colony are without surface water, and as the natural drainage is perfect, such areas were formerly regarded as waste. Of late years the construction of artificial reservoirs has made great progress, and it has been found that water may be had in abundance in many localities by sinking artesian wells.

The fisheries on the coast, particularly on the great Agulhas bank, have been developed. In former years the only fish eaten in the colony were caught either by seines along the shore or by hooks cast from open boats. Now steam trawlers are employed as well.

Advance of education. — The school system of the colony has been greatly extended, and has been adapted to meet the wants even of the scattered farming population. Every village is provided with a good school, and in the towns educational advantages are equal to those of any part of the empire. There are numerous colleges of high standing in the colony, among which are institutions for the training of theological students and for instruction in agriculture. Above all is a university, established by royal charter, with the power of conferring degrees.

In connection with education the public libraries of the colony may be mentioned. There is hardly a village, and not a town of any importance, without one. Many of them, for instance those of Grahamstown, Kimberley, and Port Elizabeth, would be creditable to any provincial town in England, while the one in Capetown, termed by way of excellence the South African Public Library, is a really noble institution, having been en-

riched by many valuable donations, notably that of Sir George Grey.

Of late years many fine buildings have been erected in all the large towns of the colony. Some of the streets of Cape Town or of Port Elizabeth would not be out of place in any European capital. Hardly a town of any consequence is without a botanic garden, or a park with shady trees and fountains.

Population of the Cape Colony. — The Cape Colony covers an area of 276,565 square miles, and has a population of 580,000 Europeans, 1,430,000 Bantu, 10,000 Indians, and 400,000 descendants of freed slaves, Hottentots, people of mixed blood, and Malays.

Among the Bantu in the Cape Colony as well as in all other parts of South Africa, missionaries of nearly every Christian society have long been labouring, and schools, aided by the government, have been provided in ample numbers for their use. The result is that many thousands can read and write, are members of Christian churches, and have adopted European customs to a large extent.

The Malays without exception and many of the Indians are Mohamedans. They are in general a well conducted class of people, and many of them are in thriving circumstances. Most of the people of mixed blood, descendants of slaves, and Hottentots are professing Christians, and are in various stages of progress towards the European standard of living. Very great efforts are being made to train these people in habits of industry and thriftiness, for idleness and absence of care for anything but present wants are their chief failings.

Commerce of the Colony. — The commerce of the Cape Colony, as well as that of the Transvaal, Natal, and the Orange River Colony, has grown to an extent that would have been regarded as impossible in the middle of the nineteenth century. Gold from the Transvaal throws all other South African productions into the shade, but from the Cape Colony diamonds, wool, copper ore, ostrich feathers, mohair, and hides and skins are exported in very large quantities. Fruit, wine, aloes, and several other articles are also sent abroad.

The four colonies of which a short account has been given are about to lose their distinct governments and to be firmly united together as one strong state, the seat of the administration of which will be Pretoria, but the parliament will hold its sessions in Capetown. The country will then form an important section of the widespread British empire, and its people may look forward to a period of happiness and prosperity greater than at any time in the past.

CHAPTER L.

OTHER BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

RHODESIA.

Early history. — The high plateau between the Limpopo river and the Zambesi is called Rhodesia, after Mr. Cecil Rhodes, who was the means of bringing it under the British flag. The northern part once belonged to the Makololo chief Sebetoane, who took part in the devastations of the Mantati horde, and afterwards moved northward to the banks of the Zambesi and built up a great military power there. Sebetoane was succeeded as chief by his son Sekeletu, who helped Dr. Livingstone to make his celebrated journeys across the continent. After the death of Sekeletu civil war broke out in the tribe, and then the Barotsi, who had been conquered, rose in rebellion and utterly exterminated their former masters.

Formation of the Chartered Company, 1889. — The remainder of the territory was overrun by the Matabele under the terrible Moselekatse, after their defeat by the emigrant farmers and their flight from the Transvaal. After Moselekatse's death he was succeeded by his son Lobengula, who was much less cruel, and who was very friendly to Europeans. Early in 1888 he entered into an agreement with a British official

to have no dealings with any other power, and later in the same year he sold to some Englishmen the right to work mines in the country. Then other concessions were obtained from him, and a great company was formed by Mr. Rhodes to take them all over. In October 1889 a royal charter was granted to this company, in which great powers of government were given to it.

Trouble with the Portuguese. — In March 1890 a large body of men left the Cape Colony, and marched into the eastern part of the territory, of which they took formal possession. They founded the towns of Victoria, Umtali, and Salisbury, the last of which was made the seat of government. But now trouble arose with the Portuguese, who claimed dominion over a large portion of the country, though not a single individual of that nation resided there. A force of volunteers was sent from Lisbon, but in May 1891 was utterly defeated by a detachment of the Chartered Company's police, and then a boundary line, the one now existing, was fixed by treaty between the two countries.

First Matabele war, 1893. — It was impossible for two governments, such as that of the Matabele and of the Chartered Company, to remain long near each other without war. In July 1893 a massacre of some Mashona by Matabele warriors in the township of Victoria brought on hostilities. The Matabele fought bravely, but the superior knowledge and weapons of the white men gave them such advantages that before the close of the year the war was over, Lobengula was a fugitive, and his great military kraal Bulawayo was

occupied by the Chartered Company's forces. A few weeks later the chief died of fever and distress, and another of the great military powers that had their origin in the wars of Tshaka ceased to exist.

Development of the country. — Mining operations were now commenced, and it was found that although many reefs had been worked down to water level in some remote time, there was a good prospect of making gold mining pay. For cattle breeding and for agriculture also the country was proved to be very well adapted. Railways began to be constructed, telegraph lines were put up, and villages arose in several places. Bulawayo was laid out in allotments, substantial buildings, public and private, rose rapidly, and soon a stately European town was standing close to the site of the former kraal.

Second Matabele war, 1896. — A destructive outbreak of rinderpest in 1895 greatly hindered the progress of the country, and in the following year an insurrection of the black inhabitants brought everything to a temporary standstill. On the 24th of March 1896 the Matabele suddenly rose and began to murder the scattered white people wherever they could be found. The Makalanga followed their example, and the rebellion became general. All the Europeans who could not escape to villages or lagers were cut off, but strong forces were soon in the field, and in every engagement that took place theinsurgents were defeated. In August Mr. Rhodes met the Matabele leaders in the Matopo hills, and arranged terms of peace with them, but the

Makalanga did not submit until some months later. The rebellion cost the lives of over four hundred Europeans, and nearly two hundred others received wounds more or less severe.

Prosperity of Rhodesia. — Mining ceased for a time, but as soon as peace was secured it was taken in hand again, and the output of gold was increasing year by year when towards the close of 1899 the deplorable war between the white people in South Africa put a stop to industry of every kind. It is thus only since 1902 that anything like a fair opportunity has been afforded to prove what Rhodesia is capable of, and since that time both mining and agriculture have made great progress.

Rhodesia south of the Zambesi covers an area of 143,830 square miles, and has a population of 13,000 Europeans, 600,000 Bantu, and 2,000 Asiatics and mixed breeds.

THE BRITISH BETSHUANALAND PROTECTORATE.

Between Rhodesia and German South-West Africa, from the Molopo river and Ramathlabama Spruit on the south to the Tshobe branch of the Zambesi on the north, lies what is termed the British Betshuanaland Protectorate. It is the least valuable part of South Africa, and is thinly inhabited by Betshuana tribes, who in 1885 voluntarily accepted British supremacy. The London Missionary Society has had agents working here since the middle of the nineteenth century, and under their guidance many of the people have made a considerable advance towards civilisation and have embraced the

doctrines of Christianity. British officials exercise authority over all Europeans in the protectorate, and also control the relationship of the tribes to each other, but the chiefs are not interfered with in the government of their own people.

The area of the British Betshuanaland Protectorate is 275,000 square miles, and its population consists of 1,000 Europeans and 120,000 Bantu.

SWAZILAND.

This is a small tract of land, enclosed by the Transvaal, Natal, and Portuguese South Africa. It has had a chequered government, but is now a kind of protectorate, in which the European residents are ruled by a British official, and the Bantu are subject to their own chief under the supervision of the king's representative. The area of Swaziland is 6,536 square miles, and its population consists of 900 Europeans and 86,000 Bantu.

BASUTOLAND.

After Basutoland became British territory in 1868 its affairs were directed by an agent appointed by the high commissioner until 1871, when it was annexed to the Cape Colony. It was governed to some extent by means of European magistrates, though a great deal of power was left to the chiefs, to whom also liberal salaries were paid. Upon an attempt to put in force the disarmament act in 1880, however, the Basuto rose in rebellion, and the effort to subdue them was unsuccessful. The territory was then transferred back

again to the imperial government, and has since 1884 been regarded as a kind of protectorate. English magistrates are stationed in the country, but the tribe is only to a limited extent subject to control.

The area of Basutoland is 10,293 square miles, and its population consists of 900 Europeans and 350,000 Bantu.

CHAPTER LI.

GERMAN AND PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

Far the greater portion of South Africa, as we have seen, belongs to the British empire, but there is a large tract along the western coast under the flag of Germany, and another large tract along the eastern coast governed by Portugal.

In 1884 Germany took possession of the south-western coast of Africa between Cape Frio and the Orange river, excepting of course the British territory around Walfish Bay and the twelve guano islands. It was afterwards arranged by treaty that the German territory should extend eastward to the twentieth meridian from Greenwich, with an additional tract in the shape of a rectangle on the north-east, which makes the Zambesi its border there.

The southern part of this territory, which is usually called Great Namaqualand, is exceedingly arid, but the northern part, known as Damaraland or Hereroland, is in many places adapted for cattle rearing, and in some localities of limited extent agriculture can be carried on. There are rich copper mines in the country, and diamonds are found in it. The territory, having the Kalahari desert on its eastern side, is almost isolated

from the remainder of South Africa, but there is constant communication with it by sea from Capetown. The Hottentots and Bantu inhabitants gave so much trouble to the German government that there has been no proper opportunity until quite recently to develop any resources the territory may have, but now that peace has been secured rapid improvement will probably take place.

THE PORTUGUESE POSSESSION.

Struggle with the Bantu at the beginning of the 19th century. — In the early years of the nineteenth century the power of the Portuguese in South Africa was very limited indeed, and there was almost constant war among the Bantu, who were independent of all control. There was no trade worth speaking of except in slaves.

In 1823 the tribe now known as the Angoni, then termed Vatwahs by the English, broke away from Tshaka, and committed great ravages among the Bantu on its way to the north. Having been defeated by the Matshangana in a great battle on the Sabi river, the Angoni fled across the Zambesi and took possession of the country along the western shore of Lake Nyassa, where they remained to be a scourge to the earlier inhabitants.

Much more powerful was a horde under the chief Manikusa, that fled from Tshaka and cut its way northward, literally exterminating many of the tribes that it encountered. This horde became known afterwards as the Matshangana, when Manikusa, its leader, welded it into a tribe and changed his own name to Sotshangana.

Destruction of Portuguese settlements by the Matshangana. — In 1833 the Matshangana destroyed the Portuguese fort at Lourenço Marques, and put every one of the garrison to death. In 1834 they pillaged Inhambane, and killed every one there except ten men who managed to escape. In 1836 they utterly destroyed Sofala, leaving no one alive. They then marched to Sena, and killed most of the people there. A few of the inhabitants succeeded in escaping to an island in the Zambesi, and these were permitted to return on condition of paying yearly tribute to the Matshangana.

Re-occupation of settlements and rise of Delagoa Bay. — The Portuguese stations were re-occupied within a few years, but they were held with difficulty, and on several occasions narrowly escaped destruction a second time.

Upon the death of Sotshangana in 1861 two of his sons fought for the chieftainship, and the Portuguese, by assisting one of them, named Umzila, obtained his friendship and a cession of land. His rival was defeated, and the Portuguese had an opportunity of extending their power again along the coast. At this time also the harbour of Delagoa Bay was beginning to acquire an importance it never had before, on account of the settlement of Europeans in the Transvaal, for whom it was the nearest port.

Treaty between Portugal and the Transvaal. — In 1869 a commercial treaty was concluded between the governments of Portugal and of the Transvaal, and in it a boundary line between them was fixed.

Various circumstances occurred to prevent a road being made from the highlands to the bay before 1887, but in that year the construction of a railway was commenced, and in 1895 there was communication by steam between Lourenço Marques and all the important towns in South Africa.

Contests between Portuguese and Bantu. — On the Zambesi from 1844 to 1888 the Portuguese power was set at defiance by a rebel horde that commanded the passage of the river, but the insurrection was at last suppressed, and since that time the tribes there have been kept in fairly good order and peace has been generally maintained.

In 1884 Umzila died and was succeeded by his son Umdungazwe, who assumed an attitude of defiance, and demanded that tribute should be paid to him by the Portuguese. This led to war in 1894, but after several engagements in which his army was defeated, in December 1895 he was made a prisoner and was banished to Lisbon. Thus the Matshangana, the last of the great military tribes that had their origin in the wars of Tshaka, ceased to exist as an independent people.

Lourenço Marques and Beira. — The Portuguese possession is far more prosperous than ever it has been before. Lourenço Marques is a town of importance, through which a large portion of the commerce of the interior passes. Great steamers frequent the bay, and every modern appliance for removing cargo is provided. The town is now the capital of the whole province of Mozambique, and in it the governor-general resides and

the legislative council meets. But it differs from all the towns of British South Africa, inasmuch as ten men live in it for every woman, because very few people wish to make it their permanent home. Its population consists of 3,000 Portuguese, of whom 500 are females, 1,600 other Europeans, of whom 340 are females, 1,700 Asiatics, of whom only 70 are females, and 3,500 Bantu labourers, of whom 50 are females. Nearly 50,000 Bantu labourers, engaged in different parts of the Portuguese territory, are forwarded every year through Lourenço Marques to work in the gold mines at Johannesburg, so that the interior is very much more dependent upon this coast than upon the western.

Another town of recent growth in the Portuguese territory is Beira, at the mouth of the Pungwe river, not far from Sofala, which is now nearly abandoned. It owes its existence to the railway which connects it with Rhodesia. The town is built on a sand spit at the mouth of the river, and the harbour is a good one.

Tete, Sena, and Inhambane remain mere hamlets.

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

[The more important events are printed in thicker type].

1485. Voyage of Diogo Cam.
1486. **Bartholomew Dias rounds the Cape of Good Hope.**
1497. **Vasco da Gama reaches Calicut in India.**
1500. Death of Bartholomew Dias.
1503. Antonio de Saldanha enters Table Bay.
1505. **Pedro d' Anaya founds a settlement at Sofala.**
1510. Francisco d' Almeida is killed by Hottentots at Table Bay.
1531. Trading station founded by Portuguese at Sena.
1544. Portuguese open a trade with Delagoa Bay.
1552. Wreck of the *St. John.*
1554. „ „ „ *St. Benedict.*
1560. Beginning of missionary work among the Bantu.
1571. Expedition under Francisco Barreto.
1577. Dominicans establish a monastery at Mozambique.
1581. Sir Francis Drake on his voyage round the world passes the Cape.
1591. Three English ships touch at Table Bay.
1592. War between Portuguese and Bantu.
1595. First Dutch voyage to India.
1602. **Formation of Dutch East India Company.**
1628. Attempted massacre of Portuguese by Kapranzine.
1644. **Opening of slave trade with Brazil.**
1652. **Arrival of Van Riebeek and foundation of the Cape Colony**
1657. First colonists settle at Rondebosch.
1657. Discovery of the Berg river.
1658. First slaves brought from the coast of Guinea.
1659. First quarrel with the Hottentots.
1660. Discovery of the Elephant river.
1665. Arrival of the first resident clergyman.
1665. Building of the castle commenced.
1672. Land purchased from the Hottentots and colony extended to the Hottentots Holland.
1673—7. War with Gonnema.
1679. **Coming of Simon van der Stel and foundation of Stellenbosch.**
1685. Discovery of copper mountains in Namaqualand.
1685. Wreck of *Good Hope* at Port Natal.

1686. Wreck of *Stavenisse* on Natal coast.
1687. **Occupation of Drakenstein valley.**
1688. **Arrival of the first Huguenots.**
1699. Retirement of Simon van der Stel and succession of Willem Adriaan van der Stel as governor.
1700. **Occupation of Tulbagh valley.**
1707. Dismissal of W. A. van der Stel.
1713. **Outbreak of small-pox.**
1721—30. Dutch in possession of Delagoa Bay.
1722. Great loss of life by gale in Table Bay.
1730. **Portuguese build a fort at Inhambane.**
1733. Further shipwrecks in Table Bay.
1736. Murder of elephant hunters at a Xosa kraal.
1742. Simon's Bay is first used in the winter months.
1743. Churches established at Roodezand (now Tulbagh) and Zwartland (now Malmesbury).
1745. Landdrost appointed to the district of Swellendam.
1746. **Village of Swellendam founded.**
1751. Ryk Tulbagh succeeds Hendrik Swellengrebel as governor.
1755. Second serious epidemic of small-pox.
1759. Jesuit missionaries leave Portuguese settlements.
1761. Exploration of southern part of Great Namaqualand.
1767. Third outbreak of small-pox.
1771. Death of Father Tulbagh.
1775. Dominicans give up missionary work among the Bantu.
1778. The Fish river is made the eastern boundary of the Cape Colony.
1779—81. **First Kaffir war.**
1780—3. War between England and Holland, and downfall of the East India Company.
1781. Arrival of a French army to defend the colony against the English.
1786. **Foundation of Graaff-Reinet.**
1789—93. **Second Kaffir war.**
1792. **Foundation of mission station at Genadendal.**
1795. Rebellion of burghers against the East India Company.
1795. **English army takes possession of the colony.**
1796. **Surrender of Admiral Lucas's fleet in Saldanha Bay.**
1797—8. Government of the Earl of Macartney.
1799. Arrival of first missionaries of the London Society.
1799—1801. Government of Sir George Yonge.
1799—1803. **Third Kaffir war.**
1803. Restoration of the Cape Colony to Holland.
1804. Foundation of Uitenhage.

1805. First post between Cape Town and the interior villages.
1806. Seizure of the Colony by Great Britain.
1808. Foundation of the village of Clanwilliam.
1809. All Hottentots made subject to colonial laws.
1811. Foundation of George and Caledon.
1812. Fourth Kaffir war.
1812. Foundation of Grahamstown and Cradock.
1812. The 'Black Circuit'.
1815. Slachter's Nek rebellion.
1818. Foundation of Beaufort West.
1818. Opening of South African Public Library.
1818—9. Fifth Kaffir war.
1819. Foundation of Worcester.
1820. Arrival of British settlers.
1822—8. Bloodshed during Tshaka's wars.
1824. Occupation of Thaba Bosigo by Moshesh.
1824. Opening of French Hoek pass.
1824. Erection of lighthouse at Green Point.
1825. Creation of council to advise the governors.
1825. Foundation of Somerset East.
1828. Murder of Tshaka and accession of Dingan as chief of the Zulus.
1828. Release of the Hottentots from all restraint.
1828. Foundation of Malmesbury.
1829. Formation of Hottentot settlement at the Kat river.
1829. Opening of South African College.
1830. Foundation of Colesberg.
1833. Arrival of French missionaries among the Basuto.
1833. Destruction of Portuguese settlements at Lourenço Marques by Matshangana.
1834. Creation of legislative council in the Cape Colony.
1834. Liberation of slaves in the colony.
1835. Sixth Kaffir war.
1836. Utter destruction of Sofala by Matshangana.
1836. The 'Great Trek'.
1836. Massacre of emigrants by Moselekatse's army.
1837. Election of Pieter Retief as head of the emigrant farmers.
1837. Defeat of Moselekatse by the emigrants and his withdrawal beyond the Limpopo.
1837. Foundation of Winburg.
1838. Massacres of emigrant farmers by Zulus.
1838. Defeat of Zulu army by the farmers.
1839. Revolt of Panda against his brother Dingan.

1839. **Foundation of Maritzburg and Potchefstroom.**
1839. Introduction of present school system in the colony.
1840. Downfall and death of Dingan.
1840. Foundation of Weenen.
1842. Despatch of British troops to Natal.
1842. Siege of British camp by emigrant farmers.
1842. Natal becomes a British possession.
1843. Creation of Basuto and Griqua treaty states.
1843. Opening of mountain passes by convict labour commenced.
1844. Creation of Pondo treaty state.
1845. Skirmish at Zwart Kopjes.
1845. Division of Griqua treaty state.
1846. **Foundation of Bloemfontein and Lydenburg.**
1846—7. **Seventh Kaffir war.**
1847. **Enlargement of the Colony by Sir Harry Smith.**
1847. **Creation of the province of British Kaffraria.**
1848. **Proclamation of British sovereignty over the territory between the Orange and Vaal rivers.**
1848. Battle of Boomplaats,
1848—50. **Anti-convict agitation.**
1850. Foundation of Rustenburg.
1850—53. **The eighth Kaffir war.**
1852. **The Sand River Convention by which Great Britain acknowledges the independence of the Transvaal.**
1852. Wreck of the *Birkenhead.*
1852. Sugar planting commenced in Natal.
1854. **Meeting of first Cape parliament.**
1854. **Independence of Orange Free State recognised by Great Britain.**
1855. Foundation of Pretoria.
1855. Sir George Grey's measures with regard to the Xosas.
1856. South African Republic adopts a constitution.
1856—7. Destruction of their cattle and corn by Xosa tribe.
1858. **First war between the Orange Free State and the Basutos.**
1859. **Construction of first railway in South Africa commenced.**
1860. Union under one government of all farmers north of the Vaal.
1860. First Indians brought to Natal.
1861. Removal of Adam Kok's Griquas from the Orange Free State.
1865—6. Second war between the Orange Free State and the Basutos.
1867—8. Third „ „ „ „ „ „ „ „ „
1868. **Basutoland becomes British territory.**
1869. **Discovery of diamonds.**
1869. Commercial treaty between the Transvaal and Portugal.

1871. **The Keate award.**
1871. Great Britain takes possession of the principal diamond fields.
1871. Annexation of Basutoland to the Cape Colony.
1872. **Introduction of Responsible Government in Cape Colony.**
1873. Langalibalele's rebellion.
1873. Griqualand West becomes a crown colony.
1876. Rebellion of the Bapedi.
1877. Annexation of the South African Republic to the British dominions.
1877—9. **Ninth Kaffir war.**
1879. War with Ketshwayo and disaster of Isandlwana.
1879. Banishment of Ketshwayo to Capetown.
1880. **Griqualand West is annexed to the Cape Colony.**
1880—1. The Basuto rebellion.
1880—1. The South African Republic fights for and regains its independence.
1882. Election of Mr. Paul Kruger as president of the South African Republic.
1883. Return of Ketshwayo to Zululand.
1884. Death of Ketshwayo and accession of Dinizulu.
1884. **Basutoland is transferred to the Imperial Government and becomes a protectorate.**
1884. Commencement of the German protectorate.
1885. **Betshuanaland becomes British territory.**
1886. **Opening of goldfields in the Transvaal.**
1886. Beginning of an influx of Europeans into Swaziland.
1887. **Zululand declared British territory.**
1888. Death of President Brand and election of Chief-Justice Reitz as president of the Orange Free State.
1889. Banishment of Dinizulu to St. Helena.
1890. **Charter granted to British South Africa Company.**
1891. Boundary defined between Rhodesia and Portuguese territory.
1893. First Matabele war.
1894. Annexation of Pondoland to the Cape Colony.
1895. Unsuccessful rising of the Uitlanders against the government of the South African Republic.
1895. **British Betshuanaland is annexed to the Cape Colony.**
1896. Second Matabele war.
1897. **Zululand is annexed to Natal.**
1898. Return of Dinizulu from St. Helena.
1899—1902. War between England and South African Republics.
1908. Dinizulu again causes trouble.
1909. **Unification of South Africa.**

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